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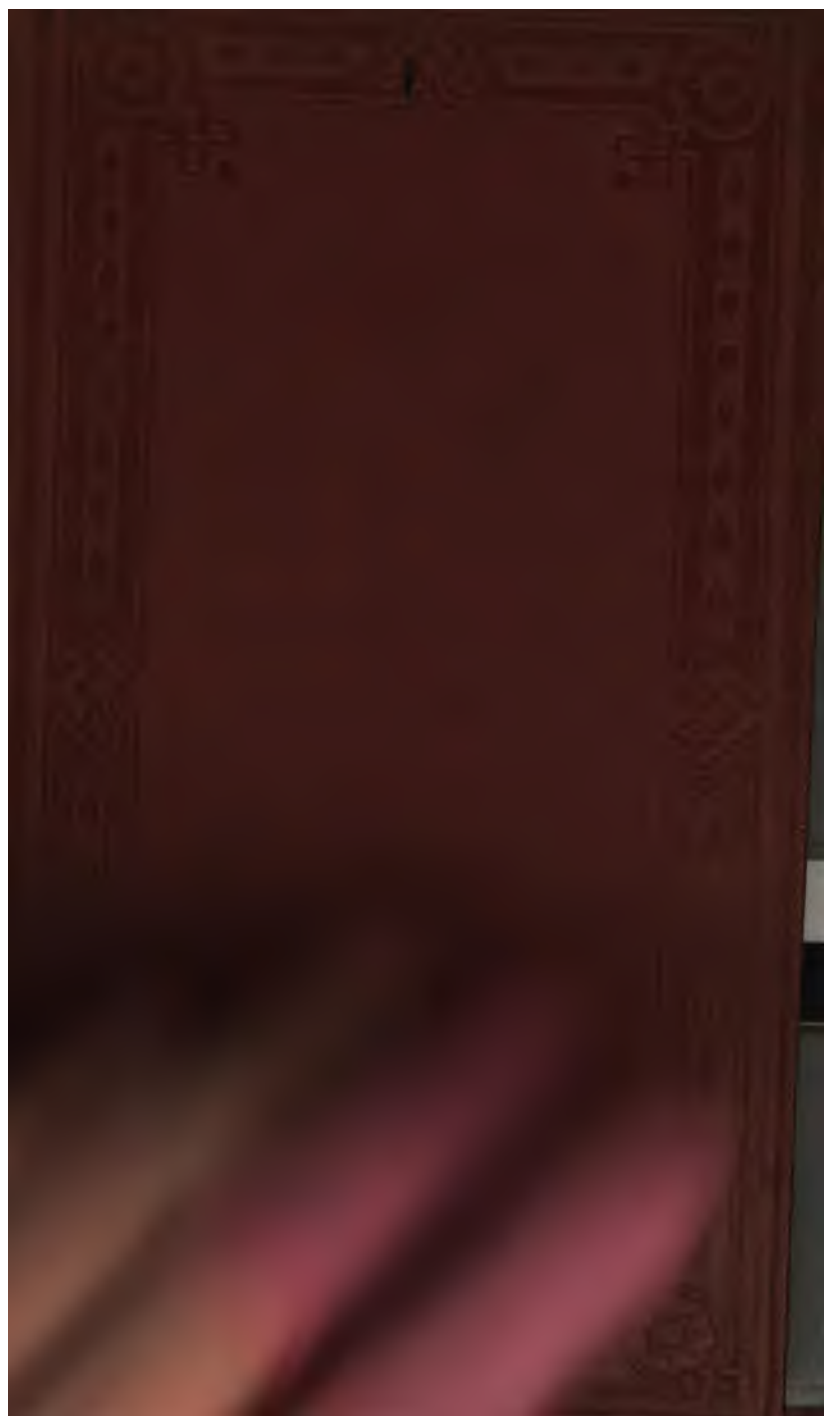
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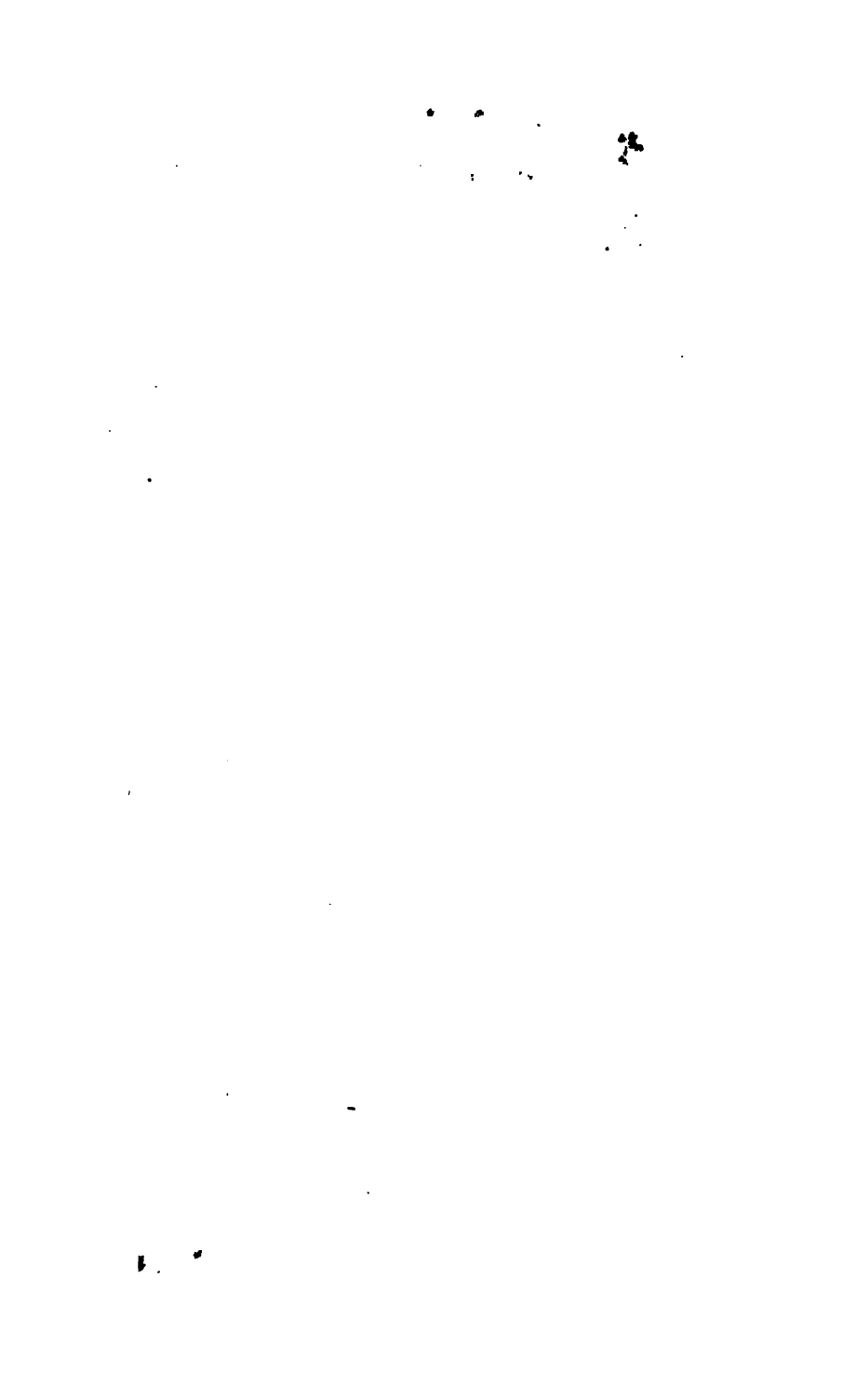




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GENERAL FRENCH-ENGLISH AND ENGLISH-FRENCH DICTIONARY

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**FROM THE ENGLISH DICTIONARIES OF
JOHNSON, WEBSTER, RICHARDSON, ETC.**

AND THE SPECIAL DICTIONARIES AND WORKS OF BOTH LANGUAGES

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By Professor SPIERS

**ENGLISH PROFESSOR AT THE NATIONAL COLLEGE OF BONAPARTE (PARIS),
THE NATIONAL SCHOOL OF CIVIL ENGINEERS, ETC.**

author of the *Study of English Poetry* and of the *Manual of Commercial Terms in English and French*
Each dictionary, one containing 712, the other 615 p., royal 8vo., treble col., is sold separately. Price : School edition 10s. 6d. Library edition 12s. 6d. cloth lettered.

Prospectus.

Professor Spiers's French and English dictionary has reached a second edition, has been adopted by the University of France for the use of French colleges and has received the approbation of the Institute of France; it is an *original work* commenced in 1835 under the auspices of the French government; it is the result of the conscientious labour of fourteen years and it has been enriched by the contributions of several of the most eminent men of both England and France.

Dictionaries of the two languages are generally reprints of Boyer, a work published in 1699, the French and English of which are 150 years old and from which the greater part of the words since formed are necessarily excluded; Boyer's French too is by no means pure and his English extremely foreign.

The definitions of things supposed to be unknown to foreigners are so literally transcribed that the *Louvre* is still in most dictionaries *the palace of the king of France in Paris*, which it has ceased to be at least a century and a quarter. At the words *TROUSERS*, *WAISTCOAT*, *WHISKY*, the student must not hope to find the only French equivalents *pantalon*, *gilet*, *whisky*. When terms so familiar as these are wanting what can be expected as to



literary or scientific words, especially the latter, an immense number of which are of our own century. As Boyer was published before Johnson, the admirable order of the latter is not observed; the confusion is inextricable; the acceptations of words the most distant from each other being huddled together without a figure or a mark of any kind to show that they are not synonyms of the same sense.

These works abound in barbarisms, mistranslations and the most ludicrous absurdities of every species.

Professor Spiers's Dictionary has been composed from the best dictionaries exclusively English on the one hand and entirely French on the other; the author has introduced the rational order of Johnson; he has collected innumerable terms in ordinary use or literary, and those of the arts and sciences, law, commerce, insurance, banking, exchange, customs, finances, the post-office, political economy, steam-navigation and railways, which must necessarily be sought in vain in dictionaries printed from one written in the 17th century before these various terms existed. At the word *ports* of 76 compounds, this dictionary contains 61 words not in other dictionaries in general and 29 that are not to be found elsewhere.

This dictionary also contains the obsolete words and acceptations of the classical authors of both nations, the coins, weights and measures of each country reduced to those of the other. Important political institutions and public functions are briefly explained.

General order (V. title) and typographical arrangement. — Acceptations, definitions, examples, idioms are not as usual jumbled indiscriminately together; all the senses follow each other without interruption in order to present at a glance all the significations of the word; each new acceptation is marked by a number; the senses of the words are separated from the examples; these begin a new paragraph and are in their turn separated from the idioms, which are classified in order to facilitate research.

Acceptations. — The acceptations of words being presented in their logical order, the various senses form a series of modifications of the same idea logically deduced, and connected like the links of a chain.

Prepositions. — These are given when they differ in the two languages.

Words accompanied by adjectives, adverbs, etc. and idioms. — These, after the words themselves, form the most essential part of a dictionary of two languages. Hitherto they have been entirely neglected; Professor Spiers has inserted a very considerable number, all those in general use.

Pronunciation. — The pronunciation has been given of all the words in the English-French dictionary and in the French-English dictionary of those that are irregular or that present the least difficulty. For each language the author has employed the sounds of the same tongue.

The following words are recommended for comparison. Ordinary terms: *escalier, fâché, monnaie, pantalon, rhume*; arts and manufactures: *coton, cuivre, fer, gaz, houille, huile, soie*; commercial terms: *capital, commis, compagnie, effet, envoi*; customs: *entrepôt, droit, transit*; engineering: *écluse, passé, pont, route, vapeur*; grammatical part: *gens, s'indigner, je, le* (the pronoun), *ni, on, pardonner, se*; law: *détention, emprisonnement, héritier, homicide, vol*; military terms: *saction, file, garnison*; mining: *filon, galerie*; the navy: *ancres, armée, bâtiment, flotte, mât, voile*; post-office terms: *dépêche, lettre, port*; railways: *convoi*, (the other dictionaries have not even this sense of the term), *rail, train*; general technology: *machine, pompe, puits, roue, treuil, vis*. It is confidently hoped that a comparison with any page whatever will prove the superiority of this new work, the labour of fourteen years.

A SHORT COURSE

OF

HISTORY.

First Series:

I. GREECE.

II. ROME.

III. ENGLAND.

BY

H. LE M. CHEPMELL, M.A.

Second Edition.

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P R E F A C E.

THE following abstract is meant as an introduction to the study of works of higher pretension, which, useful and accurate as they are, have been found by experience too diffuse and full of unimportant facts to be remembered by mere beginners. It confines itself to what is strictly historical, as the legends of Rome and Greece are nothing in a dry abridgment: it is only in the flowing style of an Herodotus, a Livy, or a Goldsmith, that they can be told.

In order to save time, and not to distract the attention of the learner, questions of geography and antiquities have been left for the teacher to explain. The latter is recommended, *the first time any part of the book is read*, to draw up for his pupil a short narrative of a few lines out of the principal dates prefixed to each section, (only the dates in italics need be learned by heart,) so as to enable him to form a general outline of the subject. As the frequent recurrence of the same names and titles designating different

persons, so unavoidable in an abridgment, is perplexing, italics are employed when any individual is first mentioned.

In the genealogies at the end of the book, those female descendants of the English kings have been omitted, who have either left no children, or else were of no historical importance.

In this second edition, the Roman chronology has been altered after Dr. William Smith's Tables; the history of Greece, and the account of the English kings before the accession of the Stuarts, have been enlarged; and the remainder of the work has been amended. Much of the additional matter, being meant for the more advanced student, has been thrown into the notes.

The encouragement which this little book has met with, has led the author to undertake a supplementary series on the same plan, which will give a succinct account of foreign affairs during the Middle Ages and in Modern Times.

CONTENTS.

PART I.—HISTORY OF GREECE.

SECT.	PAGE
1. Sparta	2
Athens	4
2. The Persian Wars	7
3. From the Rise of Pericles to the Peloponnesian War	14
4. The Peloponnesian War	19
PART I. The Peloponnesian War, until the Peace of Nicias	ib.
PART II. The Peloponnesian War, from the Argive Confederacy to the Failure of the Athenians at Syracuse	25
PART III. The Peloponnesian War, from the Revolt of the Allies to the Surrender of Athens	29
5. From the Thirty Tyrants to the end of the first Bœotian War	34
6. The Second Bœotian War	39
7. The Macedonian Period	45
PART I. The Reign of Philip of Macedon	ib.
PART II. The Reign of Alexander the Great	49
PART III. From the Death of Alexander to the end of the Confederate War	50

PART II.—HISTORY OF ROME.

1. From the Building of the City to its Burning by the Gauls	56
2. From the Rebuilding of Rome to the end of the War with Tarentum	63
3. The First Punic and the Illyrian and Gallic Wars	67
4. The Second Punic War	71

SECT.	PAGE
5. The Macedonian, Third Punic, and Numantine Wars .	77
6. From the times of the Gracchi to the end of the Social War	83
7. From the Contest of Sylla and Marius to the end of the Mithridatic Wars	92
8. From the First Triumvirate to the Death of Cæsar . .	100
9. From the Death of Cæsar to the Fall of the Commonwealth	109
10. History of the Roman Emperors	114

PART III.—HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

The Britons and Romans	132
The Saxons	134
The Danish Kings of England	140
The Saxon Kings restored	141
House of Normandy.	
William I.	143
William II.	146
Henry I.	148
House of Blois.	
Stephen	149
House of Plantagenet.	
Henry II.	151
Richard I.	154
John	157
Henry III.	160
Edward I.	164
Edward II.	169
Edward III.	172
Richard II.	182
House of Lancaster.	
Henry IV.	187
Henry V.	190
Henry VI.	192
House of York.	
Edward IV.	198
Edward V.	201
Richard III.	202

CONTENTS.

vii

	PAGE
House of Tudor.	
Henry VII.	204
Henry VIII.	209
Edward VI.	215
Mary	218
Elizabeth	220
House of Stuart.	
James I.	227
Charles I.	231
The Commonwealth	247
The Protectorate	252
The Anarchy	256
Charles II.	258
James II.	278
William III. [of the House of Orange] and Mary II.	288
Anne	295
House of Brunswick.	
George I.	302
George II.	307
George III.	318
George IV.	336
William IV.	338

PART I.

HISTORY OF GREECE.

SECTION I.

B. C. 1183. *Troy taken.*

1104. *Return of the Heraclides.*

1044. *Ionio Migration.*

GREECE, a land of mountain ranges and valleys much intersected by gulfs, was by nature divided into small states, governed at first by kings and their subject chieftains, most of which, in the course of time, became republics. Its original inhabitants were *Pelasgians*¹; but a Thessalian tribe called *Hellenes* extended its influence over the whole country, and gave it the name of *Hellas*.

The early history of the *Hellenes*², or Greeks, who were divided into the *Ionian*, *Æolian*, and *Dorian* races, is fabulous. Its most remarkable features are the power and legislation of *Minos*, king of Crete, who checked the piracy which infested the Grecian seas; and, long afterwards, the league of most of the kings against Troy. After the ten

¹ An agricultural people, which also occupied Italy, Sicily, and the West Coast of Asia Minor.

² Also called *Achæans* in Homer's days, a name afterwards limited to a race which inhabited the Peloponnæsus.



PART I.

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years' siege which Homer's poems have made so famous, that city was taken and burned, B. C. 1183.

About fifty years afterwards, the Thesprotians subdued Thessaly³; and a greater change took place in 1104 B. C., when the Dorians, headed by chiefs called Heraclides, who claimed descent from Hercules, left their settlements in Doris, and, crossing the Corinthian gulf, conquered all the Peloponnēsus but Arcadia and Achaia. Many of those who suffered from these changes emigrated to Asia Minor, where, on the north-western coast, the Æolian colonies were founded⁴. Other colonies were planted by the Dorians on the south-western coast; and in the year 1044 B. C., a large number of Ionians, who had taken refuge in Attica when obliged to leave the Peloponnēsus, went over to Asia, and colonised the western coast. The shores of the Mediterranean, particularly Sicily and the south of Italy, were also full of Grecian colonies, most of which were Dorian⁵.

SPARTA.

B. C. 884. Lycurgus flourishes.

743. *The Messenian Wars begin.*

685. Second Messenian War.

668. *End of the Second Messenian War.*

The Dorian conquerors of Laconia were called *Spartans*, from the city in which they lived. Being outnumbered by their subjects, they maintained their ascendancy by their superior energy, to which their stern habits of life and

³ Some of the natives emigrated, and seized upon part of Bœotia; the rest became serfs. As the conquerors, who were now the nobles, were rich, and the country was well suited for horses, the Thessalian cavalry was renowned in Greece.

⁴ Called Æolian, owing to the number of Bœotian emigrants.

⁵ In Italy and Sicily, the Greek settlers were called Italiotes and Siciliotes.

military education greatly contributed⁶. Their laws and institutions were revised by *Lycurgus*⁷, who is erroneously supposed to have invented them.

Two *Kings* of limited power, (the Agids and Proclids, or Eurypontids,) descended from *Eurysthenes* and *Procles*, the sons of the Heraclide chief *Aristodēmus*, had the priesthoods and command of the army, and presided over a *Senate* of twenty-eight citizens past the age of sixty, chosen by the rest of the people for life. All questions of importance were laid by the Senate before the *Assembly* of the Spartan people, in which none but magistrates were allowed to speak. Five *Ephors*, annually elected, watched over the conduct of the citizens, even kings being obliged to give account to them; and, like the Venetian Council of Ten, their rule soon became an intolerable despotism.

The trade and manufactures of Laconia were carried on by the Lacedæmonian *Periæcians*⁸, who, though belonging to the conquered race, retained their freedom, and were trusted with arms. They had, however, to pay tribute for their lands, and were long excluded from any share of the government and from all military command. The rest of the original inhabitants of the country were reduced to slavery, and called *Helots*. These farmed the lands of the Spartans on fair terms, served as light troops, and were often rewarded with freedom; but, on the whole, they were harshly and cruelly treated.

The Spartans attacked their Dorian neighbours in Mes-

⁶ Their meals were frugal, and eaten in common. The *black broth* of Sparta has become famous.

⁷ Uncle and guardian of king *Charilæus*. He is said to have divided the lands among the citizens,—a measure which, in truth, must date from the conquest of the country,—and to have invented iron money, to check the increase of trade and luxury.

⁸ That is, *dwellers in the country*. They could not intermarry with the Spartans.

sēne, B. C. 743 ; and, after two desperate and sanguinary wars⁹, forced them either to emigrate¹, or become Helots, B. C. 668. They also conquered part of the Argive territory, but failed in their attempts upon Arcadia.

ATHENS.

B. C. 1045. *Death of Codrus. The Archontate.*

683. Nine Annual Archons.

621. Laws of Draco.

594. *Laws of Solon.*

560. *Usurpation of Pisistratus.*

527. Death of Pisistratus.

510. *Expulsion of the Pisistratids.* Reforms of Clisthenes.

508. Recal of Clisthenes.

The communities of Attica are said to have been united under one system of government by king *Theseus*. *Codrus*, the last of the kings, devoted himself to save his country, when the Dorians tried to advance beyond the Peloponnēsus, as it had been prophesied that the army which lost its leader should conquer, B. C. 1045².

Athens now became an aristocratical republic, at the head of which a descendant of *Codrus* ruled as *Archon* or President. At the end of three centuries, this office was no longer held for life, but only for ten years. At length, B. C. 683, there was a further change, and *nine annual Archons*³ were chosen out of the whole body of the nobles.

⁹ The first struggle lasted twenty years, and ended with the surrender of the stronghold of Ithōme. The next generation of Messenians, headed by the hero *Aristomenes*, and assisted by the Argives and Arcadians, tried to throw off the Spartan yoke, B. C. 685. Owing to the treachery of an Arcadian king, *Aristomenes* was forced to retreat to Mount Eira, which he held for some years, till it was taken by surprise.

¹ Messāna in Sicily, originally called Zancle, was seized and occupied by some of these emigrants.

² He disguised himself, insulted a Dorian, and was slain.

³ The first was the *Eponymus*, who gave his name to the year ; the

The nobles governed harshly. They were in the habit of lending money; and if their debtors could not pay, they were sold for slaves. As judges they were partial; an evil which *Draco* when Archon, B. C. 621, tried to correct by means of fixed laws. These were too severe to be enforced; and the people became so indignant, that the nobles, who were weakened by dissension, allowed *Solon* to be made Archon, with full power to reform the state, B. C. 594.

Solon relieved the debtors⁴, and deprived the nobles of all their privileges but the priesthoods; and, classing the people according to property, confined the chief offices to the rich. The *Assembly* of the people was to choose the magistrates, and freely to discuss whatever was laid before it by the *Council*, a body of four hundred members elected yearly by lot out of the four tribes⁵. The ten courts of justice were served by the six thousand members of the *Heliæa*, who were also elected yearly by lot. The *Heliæa* could overrule the decrees of the Assembly, if they violated the constitution.

He moreover increased the powers of the court of *Areopagus*⁶, in which all who had honourably served as Archons sat as judges. It had the care of the morals of the citizens, and the decision of all matters connected with religion. Cases of murder, perjury, and bribery, were tried there.

These reforms neither pleased the selfish nobles, nor the second, the *King*, who presided over religious matters; the third, the *Polemarch*, or commander in chief; the rest were the *Thesmothetæ*, or judges. After the reforms of *Clisthenes*, the Archontate gradually became little more than an empty honour.

⁴ He lowered the rate of interest, raised the nominal value of money, and set free those who had become slaves.

⁵ The tribes were made local by *Clisthenes*, who increased them to ten, and the Council to five hundred.

⁶ *Mars' Hill*, the court before which *St. Paul* was brought.

levellers who had longed to seize their estates. The struggles of faction were renewed, and the leader of the people, the Codrid *Pisistratus*, became the *Tyrant*⁷ of Athens, B. C. 560. Though twice expelled, he, and his sons *Hippias* and *Hipparchus* after his death, B. C. 527, ruled with great lenity. But the murder of Hipparchus, owing to a disgraceful private quarrel, rendered Hippias suspicious and cruel; on which his enemies, the exiled Alcæonids⁸, took advantage of the discontent which arose, and, with the help of Sparta, the whole family of the Pisistratids were driven out of Attica, B. C. 510.

The Spartans, however, soon repented of what they had done. Democracy made rapid strides in Attica under *Clisthenes* the Alcæonid, who, among other changes, made the Archons eligible by lot, and introduced the *Ostracism*⁹. They joined with the Athenian nobles in expelling him¹⁰; but when they proceeded to set up an oligarchy, he was recalled by the people, who rose in arms, and drove out *Cleomenes*, the Spartan king. But for the opposition of the Corinthians, the Spartans would have attempted to restore Hippias, who now went over to Asia to seek for Persian aid.

⁷ A *Tyrant* was a demagogue whom the people invested with absolute power. At that time all the Doric states, except Argos and Sparta, and most of the colonies, were thus governed.

⁸ Descended from *Alcæon*, the last perpetual Archon.

⁹ The banishment of an over-powerful citizen for ten years by an arbitrary decree of the people. It was so called because the votes were written on pot-sherds.

¹⁰ It was easy to expel an Alcæonid, as the family had once been guilty of sacrilege and murder towards the followers of *Cylon*, a discontented noble who, some time before the usurpation of *Pisistratus*, had tried to make himself tyrant.

SECTION II.

THE PERSIAN WARS.

B.C. 546. *Cyrus takes Sardis.*

521. *Accession of Darius.*

499. Ionian revolt. *The Burning of Sardis.*

The Greek colonies in Asia Minor were eventually subdued by *Cræsus*, the wealthy king of Lydia, who in his turn was conquered, and Sardis his capital taken, B. C. 546, by *Cyrus*, king of the Persians (a people which had lately revolted against the Medes, and made them subjects), who afterwards reduced the kingdoms of Babylon and Egypt¹.

On the European side, Thrace was conquered and Macedon made tributary by *Darius*, who in the year 521 B. C. had been raised to the Persian throne. This prince also invaded Scythia ; but its wandering tribes kept out of his reach, and obliged him to hasten back to the Danube for want of food. The Scythians, eager to cut off his retreat, urged the Asiatic Greeks to break up the bridge of boats there which they were guarding for him, and thus recover their freedom. The Athenian *Miltiades*, who was then tyrant of the Thracian Chersonese, was for doing it : but the other chiefs were dissuaded by *Histiæus* of Miletus².

For this service *Histiæus* was rewarded by *Darius*, who notwithstanding dreaded his crafty disposition, and detained

¹ *Cyrus*, who afterwards took Babylon, and allowed the Jews to rebuild the Temple, was succeeded by his son, the mad *Cambyses*, the conqueror of Egypt. On the death of the latter, *Smerdis*, a deceased brother, is said to have been personated by one of the Magi. Seven Persian noblemen conspired to kill the pretender, one of whom, *Darius*, the son of *Hystaspes*, obtained the vacant crown.

² He reminded these tributary chiefs, that they wanted the aid of Persia to keep down their own subjects.

him at his court. Histiaëus, in disgust, instigated his nephew *Aristagoras* to raise a revolt among the Greeks in Ionia, hoping that he should be sent home to quell it. The rebellion proved disastrous to all who were concerned in it; and the Athenians and Eretrians, who had for a short time given aid to the insurgents, and joined in the attack and burning of Sardis, B. C. 499, drew upon themselves the whole weight of the indignation of Persia.

B. C. 492. *Mardonius invades Greece.*

490. *Battle of Marathon.*

489. Death of Miltiades.

483. Ostracism of Aristides.

In the year 492, B. C., *Mardonius*, the nephew and son-in-law of Darius, led an army over the Hellespont to take vengeance: but he met with a check in Thrace, and the fleet which supported him³ was much shattered when doubling Mount Athos; so he returned home.

A fresh expedition, under *Datis* and *Artaphernes*, crossed the Ægean, and destroyed Eretria, carrying off its inhabitants. Guided by the exile Hippias, the Persians landed at Marathon, in Attica, where they were routed and driven to their ships by a much inferior force of Athenians and Platæans commanded by Miltiades; who had risked a battle, knowing that delay would give time for dissension and treachery. This defeat first showed the superiority of Europeans over Asiatics, and its moral effect was incalculable⁴.

³ The ancient ships of war, being made for rowing, were too shallow and sharp in their build to have stowage for provisions, or even free space on their decks. The crews, therefore, whenever they could, landed to eat and sleep; and they were chiefly employed in co-operation with a land army.

⁴ There were at least 30,000 barbarians (as the Greeks termed foreigners), who were opposed by 9000 Athenians and 1000 Platæans. Miltiades was only one of the ten generals; but the polemarch *Callimachus* gave the casting vote in favour of fighting.

The year after, Miltiades died in consequence of a wound received at Paros, when, to avenge a private injury, he wanted to make the inhabitants pay heavily for having submitted to the Persians. While in a dying state, he was accused by *Xanthippus* of having deceived the people, who had entrusted him with a fleet; and, though acquitted of the capital charge, he was ungratefully fined fifty talents⁵.

The just and high-minded *Aristides* now contended for the chief power with *Themistocles*, a man of greater genius, but his inferior in birth and integrity. Themistocles managed to have his rival ostracised; and, foreseeing another Persian invasion, succeeded in creating an efficient navy.

B. C. 485. Accession of Xerxes.

480. *Battles of Thermopylæ, the Artemisium, and Salamis.*

479. *Battles of Plataea and Mycale.*

477. Insolence of Pausanias. *Naval supremacy of Athens.*

471. Themistocles ostracised.

467. Death of Pausanias.

466. *Battles of the Eurymedon.* Flight of Themistocles.

465. Death of Xerxes.

A rebellion in Egypt, and the settlement of the succession to his throne, hindered Darius from wreaking his vengeance upon Athens. He died B. C. 485; and not long afterwards the new king, *Xerxes*, his son by *Atossa* the daughter of Cyrus, was induced by Mardonius and the Greek exiles to renew the war. Collecting a vast fleet and army⁶, Xerxes crossed the Hellespont, over which a double bridge of ships had been made⁷, and marched unre-

⁵ A talent was about eighty pounds' weight of silver.

⁶ His forces, including camp-followers, are said to have amounted to 5,000,000 men; but 500,000 would be nearer the truth. When he reviewed them at Abydos, he wept at the thought, that in an hundred years not one man among them would be alive.

⁷ To avoid the dangerous passage round Mount Athos, Xerxes had a ship-canal cut through the isthmus which connected it with the main land.

sisted through Thrace, Macedon, and Thessaly, B. C. 480. Bœotia,—with the noble exceptions of Plataea and Thespiæ,—and most of the northern states of Greece, declared for him ; while Argos, Corcyræ, and several others, remained neutral⁴.

He was, however, stopped at the narrow pass of Thermopylæ by a small army of Greek patriots under *Leonidas*, the Spartan king ; until, at length, a traitor guided a detachment of his troops by a mountain-path, to attack them in the rear. *Leonidas*, seeing that all was lost, dismissed his allies, and with his 300 Spartans, and 700 brave Thespians, who would not leave him, resolutely fought and died in obedience to the laws of Sparta, which forbade retreat. At the tidings of his fall, the Greek fleet, which had been stationed at the *Artemisium*, or opposite shore of Eubœa, and had had some undecisive battles with the Persians, whose ships had been much shattered by a storm, retreated in haste to Salamis.

Xerxes now wasted Phocis, and sent part of his army to plunder the temple of Delphi, a most ill-fated expedition⁵. Thence he proceeded to Attica, where he burned Athens. The city was easily taken, as most of the inhabitants had been persuaded by Themistocles to remove their families from the country, and to man their ships¹.

⁴The Greeks at Salamis were now so alarmed, that they would again have retreated. But the threats of Themis-

⁵ *Gelon*, the powerful tyrant of Syracuse, who was then struggling with the Carthaginians, whom he defeated at Himera, would give no help to the Greeks, unless he had the chief command. That the Spartans would not yield ; and the command at sea, the Athenians would yield to none but the Spartans.

⁹ The mountain heights, and a storm which was thought miraculous, favoured the defence of the Delphians.

¹ He thus interpreted the oracle which told the Athenians to trust to a "wooden wall."

toles, who declared, that, in that case, the Athenians would go away and settle in Italy, caused *Eurybiades*, the Spartan admiral, to have the question reconsidered. They agreed to stay and fight; and Themistocles, to keep them to their word², sent privately to tell Xerxes that they were going to escape, and that he ought to beset both ends of the straits. The king followed his advice, and had the mortification of seeing his fleet completely defeated³; on which he returned home, leaving Mardonius with a considerable force to carry on the war.

Mardonius, after trying in vain to gain over the Athenians, advanced from Thessaly, where he had wintered, and burned Athens; which was again deserted by its inhabitants, to whom the Spartans gave no assistance, it being their selfish plan to defend the Peloponnēsus only. As a wall then building across the isthmus was nearly finished, they neither minded the entreaties nor the threats of the Athenians; until some one told the Ephors that the wall would be useless, if ever the Persians had the aid of the Athenian fleet. On this they resolved to exert themselves.

A confederate army of Greeks, under *Pausanias*, the cousin and guardian of one of the Spartan kings, now advanced against Mardonius, who had returned to Bœotia, which was better than Attica for his cavalry. Though advised to protract the war, and to employ gold to conquer Greece, he hazarded an engagement at Platæa, where he lost his army and his life, B. C. 479. On this occasion, Pausanias and the Spartans were opposed to the

² And perhaps to have a claim on Xerxes should he conquer; for his policy was always a double-minded one. In the same way, when he afterwards could not get the Greeks to sail to the Hellespont, and cut off Xerxes' retreat, he told Xerxes of the design, and pretended that he had hindered it.

³ Aristides had behaved nobly. He came in an open boat to bring news to his rival of the enemy's approach.

Persians, while Aristides and the Athenians had to encounter the Bœotians and the other Greek allies of the enemy.

On the very same day, a great victory was also gained by the patriot fleet, commanded by king *Leotychides* of Sparta. The barbarians had fled at his approach to the promontory of Mycale, where an army of 60,000 men lay encamped, and, drawing their ships ashore, had raised a rampart to defend themselves. The Greeks landed; Xanthippus and the Athenians forced the entrenchments; and the revolt of the Ionians completed the discomfiture of the enemy.

The selfish Spartans now tried to hinder the Athenians from rebuilding their walls; but they were baffled by the arts of Themistocles, who also got the people to fortify the harbour of the Piræus⁴. They soon afterwards lost the command at sea, as *Pausanias*, who had gone out as admiral, and, after taking Byzantium, had offered to betray Greece to Xerxes, whose daughter he was to marry, behaved with such haughtiness, that the whole fleet, excepting the Peloponnesian ships, placed itself under the orders of the Athenian officers.

After a fruitless effort to recover the command, the Spartans withdrew their squadron, B. C. 477, and the naval supremacy of Athens began. It was agreed that the confederates should furnish ships, and a contribution of 460 talents, to be paid yearly into a common treasury at Delos. The assessment was fair, and highly creditable to Aristides, who made it.

⁴ In the earlier days of Greece, when piracy was rife, a steep rocky height, two or three miles from the sea, was a favourable site for a town. In more settled times, the people removed to the level ground below, and the inconvenient old town (the *Acropolis*) became a fortress, or place of refuge. This practice gave rise to the plural names of so many Greek cities. Sea-ports were now built, which were often connected with the city by fortifications, as was the Piræus with Athens, the Lechæum with Corinth, &c.

After his recal to a private station, Pausanias again went out to the Hellespont to renew his intrigues with Persia, B. C. 468. Being again summoned home, trusting to money and influence, he obeyed; and, though the Ephors knew that he was tampering with the Helots, they did not dare convict him, until a letter of his to a Persian satrap was betrayed to them⁵. To avoid being arrested, he took refuge in a sanctuary; but the roof of the building was taken off, the entrance blocked up, and he was left to perish with hunger, B. C. 467. The Spartans now denounced their old enemy, Themistocles, as his accomplice. Themistocles, whom Athenian ingratitude had already ostracised, finding that no one in Greece could protect him, boldly fled to seek refuge in the court of Persia, where he was honourably received⁶. ●

The allies, in the mean time, began to grow weary of the war, and many of them had the folly to give money and ships instead of personal service. Thus Athens was enabled to tyrannize over them; and when Naxos refused to pay any more contributions, *Cimon*, the son of Miltiades, who had reduced the Persian strongholds in Europe, was sent with a fleet to deprive it of its independence, a fate which others soon shared.

When Naxos had fallen, Cimon sailed to Pamphylia, and defeated the Persian fleet at the mouth of the river Eurymedon; immediately after which he landed, and routed a large army encamped on the shore, B. C. 466. By these and other victories, he drove the barbarians out of the Grecian seas.

⁵ By a young man, who, observing that no messenger of Pausanias ever came back, opened the letter, and found that he was also to be put to death.

⁶ Themistocles fled B. C. 466. He arrived at the Persian court B. C. 465, just after Xerxes had been assassinated.

SECTION III.

FROM THE RISE OF PERICLES TO THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

- B. C. 464. *Earthquake at Sparta. Messenian Revolt.*
 461. Athenian Allies dismissed from Sparta. *Cimon ostracised. Alliance of the Athenians and Argives.*
 457. *First Corinthian War. Battle of Tanagra.*
 456. Battle of CEnophyta. Fall of Ægina.
 455. Surrender of the Messenians.
 450. *Five years' Truce.*

The growing might of Athens had greatly excited the jealousy of the Spartans, who were on the eve of making war against her, when an earthquake destroyed their city and thousands of its inhabitants, B. C. 464. The Messenian Helots revolted; and as they occupied their old stronghold of Ithôme, the Spartans, who had no skill in sieges, called in their allies, particularly the Athenians, of whom, however, they became suspicious, and at length dismissed them as being no longer wanted, B. C. 461.

The enraged Athenians renounced the alliance with the Spartans; ostracised Cimon, who, like all the aristocratical party, was their firm friend; and made a league with their enemies, the Argives and Thessalians. They soon afterwards began to build the famous long walls which connected the city with the Piræus and the two smaller ports, thus securing themselves against any danger of being starved by a land blockade, while they were yet masters of the sea. When the Messenians surrendered, in the tenth year of the war, on condition of leaving the Peloponnēsus, they gave them a settlement close to it at Naupactus.

A short time before this event, B. C. 457, Megara, which had a dispute with Corinth, joined the new league, and the Athenians became involved in a war with Corinth and its

allies. Besides other successes, they gained a great victory over their old commercial rivals the Æginetans, and besieged their city.

Another large force of theirs was absent in Egypt, whither it had foolishly gone to aid a disastrous revolt against the Persians; the Corinthians therefore tried to make a diversion by invading Megaris. But they had mistaken the spirit of the Athenians, who, instead of withdrawing their armament from Ægina, sent a body of old men and young lads, under *Myronides*, to Megara, and beat them off.

In the same year, the Spartans, hearing that Doris, their mother country, had been attacked by the Phocians, sent an army into the north of Greece; the presence of which so greatly encouraged the oligarchs in Bœotia, and even in Attica⁷, that the Athenians and the confederates resolved to crush it. But they were beaten at Tanagra, and the supremacy of oligarchic Thebes was restored in Bœotia.

Yet, in a few months, a victory gained by Myronides and the Athenians at Cænophyta, B. C. 456, again revived the cause of democracy, and the influence of Athens, who also subdued Ægina, the "eyesore of the Piræus," and by finishing the long walls, became almost impregnable. She was now at the height of her greatness⁸; and her progress in arts, refinement, and literature, was as rapid as it was wonderful. But not having the light of a true religion to

⁷ The oligarchs at Athens were made desperate by the near completion of the long walls, which made a land army of less consequence, and gave importance to the fleet. The poor, who on land were only light armed, were admitted to serve in the fleet; so that, as Athens became a naval power, the democracy became more influential.

⁸ At this time Argos was friendly to Athens; Megara, Achaia, Trœzen, and also Bœotia, Phocia, Locris, and the democratic party every where, were wholly under her guidance; and Eubœa, Ægina, Naupactus, Cephallenia, Zacynthus, and almost all the islands in the

walk by, her knowledge was by no means an unmingled good. The Athenians, though outwardly devout, even to superstition, were infidels at heart, and in their morals most godlessly profligate; living chiefly for amusement, they thirsted after every kind of excitement; and as they were led by worthless demagogues, who flattered their worst passions, though naturally kind-hearted, they became wanton, insolent, capricious, and tyrannical⁹. The liberty of their democratic institutions degenerated into licentiousness; and their allies, whose contributions were arbitrarily raised to 600 talents, and their treasury removed to Athens, were shamefully oppressed¹.

Notwithstanding these successes, Athens wanted rest; and by means of Cimon, who had been recalled from banishment, a truce was made with Sparta for five years, B. C. 450.

B. C. 449. *Death of Cimon.*

447. *Battle of Coronæa.*

445. Eubœa and Megara revolt. *Thirty Years' Truce.*

444. Thucydides ostracised.

440. Revolt of Samos.

The Persian war, which had injured the property of the rich, and made every man who could fight of consequence, had much increased the power of the lower class of citizens

Ægean, together with the Greek towns on the coast of Macedon, Thrace, and Asia Minor, and some places in Pontus and elsewhere, belonged to her as subject allies.

⁹ It unfortunately happened also, that virtuous women were gradually excluded from society with men, and their education neglected. And though Athens boasted of being a free democracy, four-fifths of its population were slaves. In fact, owing to the universal existence of slavery, *there was not one genuine democracy among the ancients.*

¹ The Chians and Lesbians, and those allies who still served in person, were treated as independent; the rest had to submit to every exaction of the Athenians. The war-contribution was raised, though

at Athens ; but they had become poorer, and, as slave labour was common, they could hardly find work. This had given great influence to Cimon ; for his immense wealth² had enabled him to feed numbers of them daily, to lend liberally, to make presents of money and clothing, and to throw his gardens and orchards open. He also adorned the city with porticos, trees, and public walks ; and, partly at his own cost, partly with the treasures which his victories had brought in, he had greatly added to its fortifications.

When he was exiled, his bounty was soon missed, and *Pericles*³ and *Ephialtes*, the leaders of the democracy, bethought themselves of taxing the rich, and oppressing the allies, to maintain the Athenian rabble. This dishonest system was checked by the Areopagus ; on which the faction did not scruple to destroy the safeguard of the constitution, by transferring much of the political power of the court to the popular assembly. The money of the allies was now spent in erecting splendid buildings at Athens ; the citizens were paid for serving as judges, and for attending on public business ; a large fleet was kept up to give them employment, and to intimidate the subject states ; and for their amusement, festivals and shows, at the public expense, were multiplied. The death of Cimon, who was in command of a fleet at Cyprus, B. C. 449,

the war with Persia was at an end ; the people of Eubœa, Naxos, the Chersonese, and other places, had their lands portioned out into allotments, which were either occupied or let by Athenian citizens ; and all were put to the expense of having their causes tried at Athens. Thus their tyrants received fees as judges, and gained greatly by the influx of strangers into their city.

² Though very poor at first, he had recovered his father's estates in the Chersonese, and gained much plunder in the war with Persia.

³ The eloquent and accomplished son of Xanthippus, the hero of Mycale.

secured the ascendancy of Pericles. For a short time, *Thucydides*⁴, the brother-in-law of Cimon, headed the aristocracy against him; but he was ostracised, B.C. 444, and Pericles, whose friend Ephialtes had been murdered a few years before, was left without a rival.

Two serious reverses soon afterwards befel the Athenians. The first, when *Tolmides*, their general, who had marched into Bœotia, to put down the insurrection in favour of the exiled oligarchs, was defeated and killed at Coronœa, B.C. 447; at which crisis, being in dread of a renewal of the war with Sparta, they agreed to evacuate Bœotia, and lost their influence in Phœcis and continental Greece. The second, when Eubœa revolted, B.C. 445, and the people of Megara also rose against them, being aided by a Peloponnesian army which invaded Attica. Eubœa was quickly recovered by Pericles, who had got rid of the Peloponnesians by bribing *Cleandridas*, the chief director of *Plistoanax*, the young Spartan king; but the Athenians, seeing that they could hardly maintain their power by land against the Dorian confederacy, agreed to a truce for thirty years, on condition of altogether withdrawing from the Peloponnēsus⁵.

⁴ This was the son of *Milesias*, and not the great historian of that name.

⁵ The interference of the Athenians with the aristocrats at Samos, B.C. 440, caused a revolt there. It ended with the humiliation of the Samians, and the submission of the Byzantines, who were about to join them.

SECTION IV.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

PART I.

The Peloponnesian War, until the Peace of Nicias.

- B. C. 435. Defeat of the Corinthian Allies of Epidamnus.
 433. *The Corcyraeans make an Alliance with Athens.*
 432. Sea-fight between the Corcyraeans and Corinthians.
 Revolt of Potidæa.
 431. *The Peloponnesian War begins.* Attack on Platæa.
 430. Plague at Athens.
 429. Siege of Platæa. *Death of Pericles.* Cleon.
 428. Revolt of Mytilène.
 427. *Surrender of Mytilène and Platæa.* Troubles at Corcýra.
 426. Attack on Ætolia. Battle of Olpæ.
 425. *Surrender of the Spartans at Sphacteria.* First expedition to Sicily. Second Massacre at Corcýra.
 424. Battle of Delium. Brasidas in Thrace.
 423. The Truce for a Year.
 422. Battle of Amphipolis. Death of Cleon and Brasidas.
 421. *Peace of Nicias.*

Notwithstanding the late reverses of the Athenians, the proud and aristocratic Dorians still looked with dread upon the power of their Ionian rivals, whose vigour took advantage of their slowness, and who were the upholders of every revolt of the people against the nobles. Nor was it long before a general war broke out in Greece at the instigation of the Corinthians.

These last had been attacked and defeated at sea, B. C. 435, by the inhabitants of Corcýra, whom they had offended by interfering in the affairs of Epidamnus⁶; and they made

⁶ The trade of the people of Epidamnus, a colony of Corcýra, having been ruined by the incursions of the nobles, whom they had driven into exile, they applied in vain for aid at Corcýra, and at

such preparations to avenge themselves, that the Corcyræans in alarm made a defensive alliance with Athens⁷, B. C. 433, in consequence of which, the Corinthians, when they conquered in their turn, were prevented by an Athenian fleet from following up their victory.

The island of Corcȳra had been colonized by the Corinthians⁸, a circumstance which greatly increased their indignation at what had happened; and in revenge they stirred up an unsuccessful revolt in Potidæa, a colony of their own which had fallen into the hands of the Athenians, and instigated the Dorian states to make complaints at Lacedæmon of the manner in which the thirty years' truce had been violated. In this they were successful; yet as the Spartans tried to gain time by insincere negotiations, war did not actually break out until the Thebans, jealous of the independence of Platæa (which had availed itself of Athenian protection against them¹), made an attempt one dark night

length obtained it from Corinth, the common mother country of both states. The enraged Corcyræans took part with the exiles, and reduced the city.

⁷ The Athenians were glad to have the aid of a great naval power. Besides which, Corcȳra was the place where ships put in when on the way to Sicily, an island which they already coveted.

⁸ Colonies were independent of the nations which had founded them; but both parties had to help each other in time of need. They also sent deputies to present offerings at the great festivals of the parent state, and at their own festivals gave certain priestly offices to its citizens. *If they also founded a colony, a citizen from the old country was made the leader of the new settlement.*

The Corcyræans, proud of their trade and naval power, had become insolent to the Corinthians; and this had long given rise to ill feeling.

¹ Thebes, an oligarchic city, governed by two *Polemarchs*, had forced the Boeotian towns to join in a league with it, of which the military leaders were called *Boeotarchs*. The Platæans, to escape this thralldom, had placed themselves under the protection of Athens as early as B. C. 519.

to seize the city, B. C. 431. For a short time, the invaders were masters of the place; but they were overpowered, and no quarter was given them.

In the great struggle which followed, all the Peloponnesians (except the Argives and Achæans, who were neutral), Bœotia and most of the aristocratic states on the main land of Greece, ranged themselves on the side of Sparta; the Acarnanians, the small democracies, most of the islands, and the ports on the coasts of Thrace and Asia, were either the allies or the subjects of Athens. Attica was now repeatedly ravaged by the Peloponnesians, in anticipation of which Pericles had prevailed upon the people to abandon the country while the war lasted, and to crowd within the walls of Athens, chiefly retaliating upon the enemy at sea, where they had the advantage on their side. The distress, however, which they suffered, aggravated by the horrors of a fearful plague which came from Egypt, lessened his popularity for a season, and he was heavily fined. But when he regained his influence, he did not live to enjoy it long. He died B. C. 429, and *Cleon*, a worthless demagogue, who had all his defects and none of his good qualities, became the favourite of the people.

Great alarm was soon afterwards caused by the revolt of Mytilène, and all Lesbos but Methymne, an example so likely to be followed by the ill-used allies of Athens; and when the place was reduced, B. C. 427, (owing to the sluggishness of *Alcidas*, the Spartan admiral, who had been sent to relieve it), Cleon caused a decree to be made, that all the citizens of Mytilène should be killed, and the women and children sold for slaves. This atrocious edict was repealed the next day; yet one thousand of the chief men of Lesbos, who had been brought as prisoners to Athens, were butchered in cold blood, and the island placed in an abject state of submission.

At this time, the Spartans also disgraced themselves, when, to gratify the hatred of the Thebans, they put to death the remnant² of the heroic defenders of Plateæa, who, worn out by famine, at the end of a long siege, had been induced to surrender by the promise of a fair trial³. The same year was likewise remarkable for a civil war at Corcȳra, where the nobles had murdered some of the leading democrats, and forced the people to abandon the Athenian alliance⁴. After a severe struggle, in which the fleets of the two great contending powers took part, the advantage remained with the commons; who revenged themselves on their opponents by a series of horrible massacres.

In the west of Greece, *Demosthenes*, an Athenian officer, retrieved some reverses which he had sustained in Ætolia, by saving Naupactus, and afterwards commanding the Acarnanians, when they signally defeated the Peloponnesians and Ambraciots at Olpæ⁵. The next year, B. C. 425, he advised *Eurymedon* and *Sophocles*, the commanders of an Athenian fleet which was bound for Sicily⁶, to land at

² One dark night in the winter preceding, half the garrison had forced its way through the enemy's lines, and escaped to Athens.

³ The Spartans at last could easily have taken the place; but they wanted to have a pretext for keeping it at the end of the war, should both parties have to give up their conquests.

⁴ The prime movers of these troubles had been some nobles, who when prisoners at Corinth had been won over to the interest of the enemy. The slow Alcidas well-nigh retrieved the affairs of the nobles, when he came up with his fleet, and defeated the Corcȳræan ships and an Athenian squadron which sided with them. But, contrary to the advice of Brasidas, who was with him, he would not land; and when he found that a large fleet was coming from Athens, he hastily retired.

⁵ The Acarnanians might now have easily crushed the Ambraciots; but they were too prudent thus to give an overwhelming weight to the power of Athens, and they offered them fair terms of peace and alliance.

⁶ The Athenians were then aiding the Ionian Leontini against the

Pylos, in Messène, and to build a fort there, as a garrison of Messenian exiles would greatly harass the Spartans. They refused; but a storm drove them into the harbour, and the men, to amuse themselves, raised up a rude fortification, which, when they sailed, Demosthenes was left to guard. Here he was beset by the Spartans; and he gallantly held out until the fleet, which he had recalled, came back to his relief. When this took place, 420 Spartans, who, with their Helots, were posted in the woody island of Sphacteria, at the mouth of the harbour, were cut off from communication with the shore; and to save these, (for citizens of the pure Doric blood were becoming scarce,) the Lacedæmonians offered terms of peace, which, owing to Cleon, were rejected.

The blockade proved tedious, and the people began to repent of what they had done; on which, Cleon tried to throw the blame upon the generals of the year, saying, that if he had the command, he would soon reduce the island. *Nicias*, a man of high family and great talent, but too fearful of responsibility, who was then first general, took him at his word; and though he tried hard to be let off, the people enjoyed the joke, and insisted on his going. When he reached Sphacteria, he found that Demosthenes was about to attack it; and, as the attempt was successful, he was lucky enough to fulfil his vain-glorious boast, that in twenty days he would return in triumph. The Spartans

Dorian inhabitants of Syracuse. This war was ended by the patriotic Syracusan Hermocrates, who, foreseeing the dangers of foreign interference, persuaded both parties to make up their quarrels.

On the way to Sicily, Eurymedon and Sophocles stopped at *Corcyra*, where about five hundred of the nobles, who had returned from the continent, whither they had fled to save their lives, had fortified the height of *Isthme*, and were pillaging their native island. These men, whom they now forced to surrender, perished miserably; for they were abandoned to the rage of their enemies, who, to get them out of Athenian protection, had treacherously induced them to try to escape.

who remained alive were kept in bonds at Athens ; and it was decreed that they should be put to death, if ever Attica were again invaded. That any of them should surrender, surprised all Greece ; for the Spartans had been wont to die rather than yield.

The following year, B.C. 424, the Athenians, when attempting to raise a revolt in Bœotia, were defeated at Delium by the Bœotarch *Pagondas*. They also lost Amphipolis, and most of their towns in Thrace, owing to the energy of *Brasidas*, the ablest of the Spartan commanders⁷; and even when a truce was made the next year, he still received revolted towns into alliance. Cleon's vanity at length led him to go out as general to oppose him, B.C. 422 ; but after showing great cowardice and incapacity, he was defeated near Amphipolis, where both himself and *Brasidas* were slain. By their fate, two obstacles to peace were now removed. Cleon wished for war, that the Athenians might not have leisure to inquire into his conduct ; *Brasidas* knew that, as a young man, he must lose all his importance at Sparta, when no longer wanted in the hour of danger.

The Spartans, now that Cleon was dead, availed themselves of the good offices of *Nicias*, and concluded a peace and alliance with Athens for fifty years, called the Peace of *Nicias*, B.C. 421. But by dealing with *Nicias*, they made *Alcibiades*⁸, a rich, profligate, and ambitious youth, who had greatly courted them, a deadly foe.

⁷ On his way, he saved Megara from the Athenians, to whom the long walls between that city and the port of Nisæa had been betrayed. When he was sent out, to lessen the number of the Helots, who were greatly feared, now that the Messenians occupied Pylos, 700 were ordered to go with him, and 2000 more were treacherously murdered. The Spartans had found out the bravest by offering freedom to all who had distinguished themselves in war.

⁸ His family had been guest-friends, or political agents of Sparta, and he had wished to renew the connexion. On his mother's side, he was the nephew of Pericles.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

PART II.

The Peloponnesian War, from the Argive Confederacy to the Failure of the Athenians at Syracuse.

B. C. 421. Argive Confederacy.

420. League of Argos and Athens.

419. War against Epidaurus.

418. *Battle of Mantinea.*

416. Devastation of Melos.

415. *Expedition to Syracuse.* Exile of Alcibiades.

414. The siege of Syracuse begins.

413. *Failure of the Athenians at Syracuse.* Agis occupies Decelæa.

The Spartans in the late peace had selfishly neglected the interests of their allies, in consequence of which an opposition league to them was formed in the Peloponnēsus, of which Argos became the head. Owing to the intrigues of Alcibiades⁹, the good understanding between Sparta and Athens was soon interrupted, and a new alliance made by the latter with Argos for one hundred years, B. C. 420.

In order to open a direct road between Athens and Argos, the confederates attempted to reduce Epidaurus. They were, however, surrounded by the Lacedæmonians, but were saved by one of their generals, who persuaded *Agis*, the Spartan king, to grant a four months' truce. Alcibiades got the allies to break the truce, and to invade Arcadia, where they were again opposed by Agis, who had

⁹ When, for instance, the Spartans sent envoys to justify themselves, these were treacherously advised by Alcibiades to deny before the people that they came with full powers. He then turned round upon them, and taxed them with double-dealing.

narrowly escaped being punished for his folly. Agis did not show much skill this time, and he was taken by surprise ; but, owing to the steadiness of his troops, he gained so decisive a victory at Mantinēa, B. C. 418, that the confederacy was broken up¹⁰.

Not long afterwards, B.C. 415, the Athenians, who hankered after the conquest of Sicily, sent a large armament under Nicias¹, Alcibiades, and *Lamachus*, to aid the city of Egesta against Selinus, which had the support of Syracuse. Just before the fleet sailed, all the heads of the images of Mercury in the streets were defaced one night, to the dismay of the superstitious citizens. Alcibiades was thought to have done it, and it was said that he had made a mock celebration of the mysteries of Ceres in a private house. He asked to be tried at once ; but his enemies, who wished to have time to undermine his popularity, waited till he had reached Sicily² before they would recall him. He managed to escape during the voyage homewards, and found a refuge in Sparta, where he wreaked his vengeance upon his country by strenuously advising that assistance should be given to Syracuse, which

¹⁰ This battle retrieved the reputation of the Spartans, which the surrender at Sphacteria had somewhat damaged.

Not long afterwards, B. C. 416, the Athenians fell upon Melos, an island originally colonised by Sparta, because the inhabitants would not give up their independence. They killed all the men, and sold the women and children for slaves.

¹ Nicias, who was as much against the undertaking, as Alcibiades was for it, tried in vain to discourage the people by making large demands of men and money.

² At Rhegium, in Italy, the commanders heard that the Egestæans had not money to pay the expenses of the war, as they had promised to do. On this, Nicias would have relieved Egesta, and then have returned ; Lamachus was for boldly attacking Syracuse at once ; but Alcibiades, whose opinion was followed, was for beginning the war by making treaties with the Sicilians against the Syracusans.

had sent envoys to ask for it; and that Attica should also be invaded, and a fortified position permanently occupied in it. He declared, that if Syracuse fell, Sicily, Italy, and perhaps Carthage, would follow, and Athens would become strong enough to crush the freedom of Greece.

In the mean time, Nicias and Lamachus laid siege to Syracuse. The Athenians made great progress in walling round the city on the land side, and their fleet entered the great harbour. They also destroyed the counter-works of the Syracusans, (on one of which occasions Lamachus was killed;) and, notwithstanding the zeal and talent of the patriot *Hermocrates*, the besieged were about to capitulate, when *Gylippus* arrived, whom the Spartans had sent out in command of a body of troops raised by the Corinthians³. His energy soon changed the state of affairs; and Nicias, whose health was declining, wrote home to be recalled, also recommending that the army should either return, or be greatly increased.

Just as Gylippus had also gained the advantage at sea, a large reinforcement came out under Demosthenes and Eurymedon, and a night attack was made on the heights of Epipolæ, behind the town, which proved unsuccessful. Demosthenes, knowing that Athens could not afford to lose the army, now urged the necessity of returning at once: but Nicias had not moral courage to undertake such a responsibility; and when at length he gave way, further delay was caused by his superstitious alarm at an eclipse of the moon. The consequence was, that Gylippus was joined by fresh auxiliaries; and when (after a naval conflict in the harbour, in which Eurymedon was killed) the Athenians made a desperate attempt to force their way out by sea, they failed so signally, that though Demosthenes wished them to try again, as there was better chance of success, not a man would embark.

³ Corinth was the mother-city of Syracuse.

The Athenians at last resolved to retreat to Catana in two divisions, of which the hindmost was commanded by Demosthenes. They were soon greatly harassed by the Syracusan cavalry and light troops; and, after a few days of dreadful suffering, Demosthenes and Nicias were successively forced to surrender⁴. Against the wish of Gylippus, they were put to death; for the traitors in the city, who had corresponded with them, were eager to destroy all proofs of their guilt; and the rest of the Athenians were cruelly confined in the quarries near Syracuse, where exposure to the weather and bad food destroyed most of them, B. C. 413.

By this time, the Lacedæmonians under king Agis, had invaded Attica, and fortified Decelæa. They now gave no rest to the Athenians, whose slaves were ever deserting to the hostile garrison, and whose men and horses were worn out with fatigue in repelling its incursions⁵.

⁴ The brave Demosthenes was hemmed in at a place full of olive-trees, and the enemy, from the walls which surrounded it, kept hurling missiles on the desperate men, whom they hardly dared to face, and forced them to surrender.

Two days afterwards, the weary and thirsty soldiers of Nicias were overpowered at the river Assinarus. The mad eagerness with which the men tried to drink, even when the river became muddy and bloody, made their last struggle still more helpless.

⁵ The rocky soil of Attica was very injurious to the horses, which in those times were unshod.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

PART III.

The Peloponnesian War, from the Revolt of the Allies to the Surrender of Athens.

B. C. 412. Revolt of the Athenian Allies.

411. *Oligarchy at Athens. Alcibiades recalled at Samos. Battle of Eretria.*

410. Battle of Cyzicus.

407. *Alcibiades returns to Athens. Cyrus Satrap of Western Asia. Battle of Notium ; Alcibiades banished.*

406. Battle of Arginüsæ. Execution of the Generals.

405. *Battle of Ægos-potami. Death of Alcibiades.*

404. *Surrender of Athens.*

The news of the calamity which had happened at Syracuse filled Athens with consternation, and encouraged its oppressed allies to seek aid from the Spartans to enable them to revolt. *Tissaphernes* also, and *Pharnabāzus*, the Persian Satraps of Lydia and the Hellespont, each sent offers of assistance to Sparta. By the advice of Alcibiades, the Spartans agreed to help the Chians, and to ally themselves with *Tissaphernes*. The war now became a naval one, and its chief seat was in Asia Minor.

But such were the noble efforts made by the Athenians, that they again became masters of the sea, and recovered several of the places which had revolted. At this crisis, Alcibiades quarrelled with the Spartans⁶, and fled to *Tissaphernes* ; whom he made a cold ally to his late friends, by showing him that it was not the interest of Persia that

⁶ There was a party at Sparta hostile to him, and an attempt had been made upon his life. King Agis also was jealous of him, on account of his wife.

either side should triumph, as, in that case, the Greeks might unite in an invasion of Asia. Wishing now to return home, and aware that he could hardly be safe there, unless a party depending upon himself were in power; he sent to the Athenian army at Samos⁷, offering to get them money and help from Tissaphernes, if he were recalled, and the government of Athens changed into an oligarchy.

Alcibiades had overrated his influence with the satrap; so, fearing that this would be found out, he broke off the negotiations by asking the Athenians to make extravagant concessions to Persia. Yet the change of government actually took place. The old democracy was overthrown⁸, and the supreme power nominally given to an assembly of five thousand of the better class of citizens, but in reality to a council of four hundred, B. C. 411. The oligarchy, however, was hardly established, when the army at Samos, headed by *Thrasybūlus*, revolted in favour of democracy, and recalled Alcibiades to be their leader. He prevented them from sailing at once to Athens, showing them that it was their first duty to resist the enemy; and by his moderation not only saved his country, but also caused a division among the oligarchs at home. The more violent were for strengthening their faction by making peace with Sparta on any terms; the more patriotic, who found a leader in *Theramenes* (a man famous for

⁷ Samos remained faithful to Athens, and did so to the last.

⁸ This was effected by *Pisander*, whom the army had sent to Athens, and the people there had empowered to treat with Alcibiades and Tissaphernes.

In making these changes, which were wrought with little blood shed, but not without violence and secret murder, *Pisander* was guided by the genius of *Antiphon*, a man who hitherto had kept aloof from public assemblies, but by his sagacity and skill in composition had obtained a certain degree of influence.

Oligarchies were also set up in some of the subject states; but in many of them they went over to the Spartans.

deserting early to the winning side), were for a compromise with the army.

Nor was it long before a collision took place. *Phrynichus*, one of the leading oligarchs, was stabbed in the market-place; and soon afterwards the people were incited to destroy a fort which was building at the entrance of the Piræus, it being given out, that it was designed for the purpose of admitting the Peloponnesian fleet. Theramenes offered to put down the tumult; instead of which he took part with the insurgents, and the power of the four hundred was at an end. On the very day that the new government was to be settled, the Peloponnesian fleet was descried. It sailed on to Eubœa; and, to save that island, from which they had then their chief supply of food, the Athenians manned their ships, and stationed themselves at Eretria. As the Eretrians were disaffected, they had trouble to find provisions; and while they were engaged in the search, the enemy came down upon them, and gained a complete victory. Eubœa revolted; and so great was the panic at Athens, that if the Peloponnesians had sailed at once to the Piræus, they would have taken it⁹.

Meanwhile the Lacedæmonians had become weary of the duplicity of Tissaphernes, and *Mindarus*, their admiral, had accepted the invitation of Pharnabâzus, and sailed to the Hellespont¹. Alcibiades now sought an interview with Tissaphernes, but found himself deceived, and was sent a

⁹ The chief power was now given to five thousand respectable citizens, and no one in office was to have any salary. This constitution was too moderate to last many months in democratic Athens.

Pisander and others fled to the Spartans at Decelæa. Theramenes afterwards prosecuted his old friend Antiphon, and had him put to death.

¹ He was pursued on his way by the Athenians under *Thrasyllus*, and defeated at the point of Cynos-sēma, a battle which somewhat restored the reputation of Athens.

prisoner to Sardis. Yet he soon escaped, and, joining the fleet, won a great battle at Cyzicus, in which Mindarus was killed and his force destroyed, B. C. 410. The Spartans were so alarmed at this heavy blow, that they sent proposals of peace to Athens, which the demagogue *Cleophon* caused to be rejected².

The war was continued with success by Alcibiades, who at length revisited Athens, B. C. 407; on which occasion he enabled the procession to Eleusis in honour of Ceres to go by land, which had not been done since the Spartans had occupied Decelæa. But when he returned to Asia, he found *Lysander*, the new Spartan admiral, warmly supported by *Cyrus*, the king of Persia's younger son, who had lately been made satrap over the western provinces. To make his ill luck complete, he was deprived of his command, because *Antiochus*, an officer whom he had left near Ephesus in charge of the fleet for a short time, while he was absent, provoked a battle against his orders, and was repulsed by Lysander off Notium.

His successor, *Conon*, was driven into the harbour of Mytilène by *Callicratidas*, the new Spartan admiral; but a large fleet was sent out to his aid, and off the islands of Arginūsæ the brave Callicratidas, who was too old-fashioned a Spartan to retreat³, was defeated and killed, B. C. 406. Six of the eight commanders who won this victory were afterwards put to death, being basely accused by Theramenes, who was eager to weaken the aristocracy, of neglecting to save the men who were floating on the

² Soon after the battle of Cyzicus, tidings came from Syracuse, that Hermocrates (who had been sent out to Asia with a squadron to aid the Spartans) was recalled and exiled.

³ He had no help from Cyrus, whom he was not supple enough to court. When he took the town of Methymne, to his eternal honour, he refused to allow any Greek to be sold for a slave. Like Gylippus and Lysander, he was of Helot origin.

wrecks, a thing which the state of the weather had made impossible⁴.

The next year, B.C. 405, Conon and his colleagues, who notwithstanding the disinterested advice of Alcibiades⁵, had stationed their fleet at Ægos-potami, an open beach, so that the crews had to fetch their provisions two miles off, were surprised by Lysander, and almost all their ships destroyed⁶. This reverse was fatal to Athens, which was soon besieged by land and sea, and forced by famine to surrender. The Corinthians and Thebans called loudly for its destruction; but the Spartans were too wise to follow their advice. The starving Athenians were made to pull down their long walls; to dismantle the Piræus; to give up all their ships of war but twelve; to restore their exiles; and to submit to the supremacy of the Lacedæmonians. Lysander insultingly began the work of demolition to the sound of music.

⁴ As Theramenes himself had been charged with this duty, he, if any one, was to blame. Thrasyllus, and *Pericles*, the legitimated son of the great statesman, were among those who were executed.

⁵ He was then living in the neighbourhood. He afterwards retired to Asia, where he was assassinated.

⁶ Conon escaped with a few ships to Cyprus, where he was harboured by Evagoras, the tyrant of Salamis.

SECTION V.

FROM THE THIRTY TYRANTS TO THE END OF THE FIRST
BOEOTIAN WAR.

B. C. 404. Thirty Tyrants. Death of Theramenes.

403. Critias slain.—*Expulsion of the Ten Tyrants.—Outlawry of the Thirty.*

401. *Battle of Cunaxa.—Retreat of the Ten Thousand.*

399. The Spartans aid the Ionian Greeks. Death of Socrates.

398. Agesilæus, king of Sparta.

397. Conspiracy of Cinadon.

396. Agesilæus in Asia.

Theramenes, who was supported by Lysander, got the Athenians to give absolute power to thirty persons, of whom he himself was one, who were to remodel the constitution. These soon called in a Lacedæmonian garrison, and, owing to the influence of *Critias*, a bold bad man, ruled with great cruelty, to the dismay of Theramenes, who declared that such a state of things could not last.

Critias, therefore, to strengthen his party, chose out three thousand persons who were to have the full rights of citizens; and with the help of the Lacedæmonians, he managed to disarm the rest. Many people were now put to death for the sake of their wealth alone; and when money was wanted to pay the garrison, he proposed that each of the Thirty should name some rich foreign settler in Athens to be thus sacrificed. Theramenes refused to name his man; on which Critias, seeing that either he himself or his rival must fall, accused him before the council of being a traitor, and by means of intimidation had him sentenced to die⁷.

⁷ When he found that the courage and eloquence of Theramenes made an impression on the council, he brought some young men armed with daggers into the room; and after coolly saying that, with

The exiles from Athens were so many, that Thrasybŭlus, who ventured in the winter out of Bœotia, was enabled by them to seize and maintain the border fortress of Phyle. He soon afterwards surprised the Piræus, and Critias, who tried to dislodge him, was slain. The death of Critias was the signal for the downfall of the tyrants; who withdrew to Eleusis⁸, after appointing ten persons to negotiate with Thrasybŭlus.

These last tried to become tyrants of Athens in their turn; and as Lysander came to their aid, the war was still continued. But the party at Sparta, which was jealous of Lysander, sent out a large force under king *Pausanias*, who overruled his policy, and mediated a peace. The old constitution was restored, and an amnesty wisely proclaimed, from which only the Thirty, and a few of the most guilty, were excepted, B. C. 403⁹. The same wisdom and moderation was not shown four years afterwards, when the famous philosopher *Socrates* was accused of impiety, and made to drink hemlock. As at this time, also, there were no subject allies to plunder; all the burthens of the state, and the expenses of the public amusements were thrown upon the rich, who, being objects of suspicion, always lived in fear of mischievous informers.

the consent of the assembly, he struck out the name of Theramenes from the list of the privileged, he sentenced him to death by virtue of the authority which the Thirty had over all other persons. Theramenes was dragged from an altar in the senate-house, and made to drink hemlock juice.

⁸ Critias had treacherously seized Eleusis for a place of refuge. The hostile townsmen he brought as prisoners to Athens, and he insisted on the Three Thousand condemning every one of them to death. He hoped to ensure the support of the Three Thousand to the last gasp, by making them sharers in his guilt: it was this which made an amnesty so necessary.

⁹ The outlaws took refuge in Eleusis, which was reduced after the leaders had been treacherously slain at a conference.

In the year 401 B. C., Cyrus attempted to dethrone his brother *Artaxerxes*, and was defeated and killed at Cunaxa, near Babylon¹. The Greek mercenaries who followed him, were neither to be subdued by force nor treachery; and the successful retreat of Xenophon and the Ten Thousand to the far distant shores of the Black Sea, revealed to the world the weakness of Persia, and the ease with which she might be conquered.

Cyrus' government in Asia Minor was given to Tissaphernes; on which the Ionian Greeks, who hated him, revolted, and got the aid of Sparta, which was ably directed by *Dercyllidas*, and afterwards by King *Agésilæus*². The latter was on the eve of dismembering the Persian empire by enabling the great provinces to become separate kingdoms; when *Tithraustes*, the successor of Tissaphernes, B. C. 395, sent an agent with money to the chief cities of Greece, and by stirring up a war, made it necessary for the Spartans to recall Agésilæus.

B. C. 395. Second Corinthian and First Bœotian Wars.—
Lysander killed at Haliartus.

394. Battles of Corinth, Cnidus, and Coronæa.

393. *Conon rebuilds the Long Walls at Athens*.—Union of Corinth and Argos.

390. Tiribāzus imprisons Conon. Thrasybūlus slain.

387. *Peace of Antalcidas*.

There was much discontent at this time in Greece. The rule of Sparta was harsh and contemptuous, and democracy had gained ground of late in Corinth and Thebes; a state

¹ Cyrus wounded his brother with his own hand. After his death, by the advice of Tissaphernes, the Persians invited the Greek officers to a conference, and murdered them.

² Agésilæus had (with the aid of Lysander) been elected king of Sparta on the death of his brother Agis, whose son *Leotychides* was believed to be spurious, as his mother was intimate with Alcibiades. The year after, B. C. 397, *Cinadon*, a daring young man, was put to

of things which brought on the *Second Corinthian and First Bæotian Wars*, B. C. 395.

Hostilities thus began. The Thebans got the Opuntian Locrians to attack their old enemies the Phocians; and when the Phocians retaliated, they invaded Phocis, as the allies of the Locrians, and induced the Athenians to join the league. On the other hand, Lysander raised an army, and marching into Bæotia, declared for the independence of the towns subject to Thebes. But he failed in an attack on Haliartus, and lost his life. The triumph of the Thebans was checked by the arrival of King Pausanias with a force from Sparta, who, however, on the approach of the Athenians, agreed to evacuate Bæotia. For this misconduct, sentence of death was decreed against him at home, and he died in exile.

The new confederacy was joined by Corinth and Argos³, and also by most of the northern states. Its forces outnumbered those of Sparta; yet, being ill commanded, they were routed near Corinth in the Peloponnēsus, and in Bæotia at Coronēa by Agesilāus, who was now on his return from Asia by the Hellespont, B. C. 394.

To counterbalance these successes, the naval supremacy of Athens was now revived. Conon, aided by the whole force of his friend *Evagoras*, the tyrant of Cyprian Salamis, and joined by Pharnabāzus in person, with his Phœnician ships, had attacked the Lacedæmonian fleet off Cnidus, commanded by Agesilāus' brother-in-law *Pisander*, a brave man, but a bad admiral, who lost both his fleet and his life. The next year, B. C. 393, on his proposing to

death for attempting to raise a revolt of the unprivileged classes and the Helots, and to destroy the citizens of pure Spartan blood, who had now dwindled to a few families.

³ Soon afterwards the democratic leaders at Corinth, who had been guilty of a massacre of the nobles, strengthened themselves by uniting Corinth to Argos, both cities forming one state, B. C. 393.

weaken the Spartans by rebuilding the long walls of Athens, and restoring her power over the islands, Pharnabāzus gave him a large supply of money with the use of his fleet, and he was enabled to effect his purpose.

The war was distressing to all parties, and was chiefly confined to plundering excursions and skirmishes⁴. At length it was felt that the power of Persia alone could turn the scale; and the Spartans sent *Antalcidas*, and the Athenians, Conon, into Asia, to gain over *Tiribāzus*, the new satrap of Lydia. Tiribāzus imprisoned Conon⁵, B. C. 390; but Antalcidas was more successful, and when, some years afterwards, he was appointed admiral in Asia, he had the support of the Persians, and was master of the sea.

He was anxious, however, to end the war; and Greece was disgraced by the peace of Antalcidas, made B. C. 387, at the dictation of the Persian king, to whom Cyprus and the Greek cities in Asia were abandoned. Athens lost most of her subject territories; the union between Corinth and Argos was broken up; Thebes was forced to agree to the independence of the Bœotian towns; and Sparta was now the only powerful state in Greece.

⁴ *Iphicrates*, an Athenian officer, was thence induced to train a body of Peltasts (so called from the light targets which they wore), which was not only superior to all other light troops, but even once destroyed a battalion of Spartan infantry.

Teleutias, the brother of Agesilāus, distinguished himself at sea during this war, and greatly injured the Athenian trade.

⁵ He died not long afterwards. Thrasybūlus was also slain about this time in Asia Minor.

SECTION VI.

THE SECOND BŒOTIAN WAR.

B. C. [386. Platæa rebuilt.]

385. The Spartans destroy Mantinæa.

382. *Leontiadas admits the Spartans into the Cadmæa.* Olynthian War.

379. The Olynthian Confederacy broken up.—*Surrender of the Cadmæa.*

378. Sphodrias attacks the Piræus. Athens allies itself with Thebes.

374. *Separate Peace of Athens with Sparta made and broken.*
[The Thebans destroy Platæa.] Jason of Pheræ, Tagus of Thessaly.

371. The Thebans reject the Peace. *Battle of Leuctra.*

370. Death of Jason of Pheræ.

The Spartans now found themselves strong enough to oppress their allies the Mantinæans⁶, whose democratical institutions they had hitherto borne with. Their jealousy was also aroused by the union of several of the towns in Chalcidice and Macedon with Olynthus, and they took up arms against it. After a sharp struggle, which lasted three years, the confederacy was broken up, B.C. 379.

At the outset of the war, B.C. 382, when 8000 Spartans, under *Phæbidas*, were marching by Thebes, in which the democrat *Ismenias* and the oligarch *Leontiadas* were at that time the Polemarchs, so nearly were the two parties balanced; *Leontiadas*, eager to put down democracy, even at the price of his country's independence,

⁶ The young king *Agisipolis* took their city and broke up their strength, by making them live in open villages.—He afterwards died in the Olynthian war, of a fever brought on by the heat of the weather.

undertook to let the Spartans into the Cadmēa, or citadel. When this treacherous act was known at Sparta, Phœbidas was fined for form's sake ; and judges were sent to Thebes, who tried and condemned Ismenias to death, on the charge of having been bribed by the Persians to raise a war in Greece.

The power of Sparta was now at its height ; but it was founded on tyranny and injustice, and by a sudden revolution, it sustained a shock from which it never recovered.

Mellon, a Theban exile living at Athens, happening to discover that *Phillidas*, the secretary of the Polemarchs, was a malcontent, formed a daring plot to recover the liberty of Thebes. With six of the exiles he secretly returned ; murdered the two Polemarchs and Leontiadas ; and raising the standard of revolt, invested the Cadmēa, which was weakly garrisoned, and soon surrendered by the Spartan commandant⁷, B. C. 379.

This reverse was made yet greater by the mismanagement of the Spartans ; who actually forced the Athenians to join the Thebans against them. For when *Sphodrias*, who commanded a Lacedæmonian force in Bœotia, made a rash and unauthorized attempt on the Piræus, and the outrage was complained of ; owing to the influence of Agesilæus⁸, no redress was given. Some important naval victories were gained by the Athenians under *Chabrias* and *Timotheus* the son of Conon ; yet they became weary of the war, as they had to bear most of the expense of it, while the Thebans, who had reduced many of the towns in Bœotia, reaped nearly all the advantage. They therefore made a separate peace, B. C. 374, which, however, was quickly broken.

The Athenians were again successful : yet they were so

⁷ For this he was put to death when he came home.

⁸ The sons of Agesilæus and Sphodrias were intimate.

alarmed at the overbearing ambition of the Thebans⁹, that they insisted on making negotiations for a general peace. But the Thebans would not consent to the terms agreed upon, as they would not acknowledge the independence of the Bœotian towns; and they were left alone to withstand *Cleombrotus*, the Spartan king, who instantly marched against them out of Phocis, B. C. 371.

He encamped at Leuctra, where *Epaminondas*¹, who was at the head of the Bœotarchs, resolved to encounter him; for the least wavering might encourage the towns to revolt. As the invaders were drawn up twelve deep, this great genius (who devised the plan of bearing down with overwhelming numbers upon a decisive point), concentrated part of his force into a phalanx fifty deep, with which he almost annihilated the enemy's right wing. *Cleombrotus* fell: and not only were the Spartans defeated for the first time by an inferior army; but, as their citizens were fast diminishing, from henceforth they no longer wielded the destinies of Greece².

The survivors took refuge in their camp, where they were beset by the Thebans, who now called upon the Athenians, and *Jason* of Pheræ, the powerful Tagus or marshal of Thessaly³, to join in crushing the power of

⁹ They had destroyed Platæa and Thespiaë, because these towns would not give up their liberties.

¹ This great Theban, though poor and devoted to philosophy, was the intimate friend of the gay and rich *Pelopidas*, who commanded the sacred band of 300 youths, to which the post of danger was always assigned.

² When the tidings of this reverse reached Sparta, during a festival, the conduct of the ephors and people was most high-minded. Every sign of useless mourning was suppressed, the games were not even discontinued; but every warrior that could be spared, was ordered to march to the aid of the survivors.

³ The population of Thessaly consisted of nobles and serfs, or *Penests*. Some families, like the *Aleuads*, exercised authority as

Sparta. But the Athenians gave no answer ; and Jason, who had no wish to make Thebes too powerful, came and made a truce for the Lacedæmonians, during which they escaped by night. He himself aimed at gaining the supremacy over Greece, and then conquering Persia,—a brilliant plan which was never carried out, as he was murdered soon afterwards, B. C. 370.

B. C. 371. Arcadian Confederacy.

370. The Spartans attack the Arcadians.

369. The Thebans invade Laconia ; Messène made free.

366. Lycomēdes murdered.

365. War between Arcadia and Elis.

362. War between Thebes and Arcadia.—*Battle of Mantinēa.*

361. General Peace. Agesilāus goes to Egypt and dies.

357. Athenian Social War.—Death of Chabrias.

355. End of the Athenian Social War.

354. Timotheus disgraced.

Now that Sparta was weakened, the Mantinēans rebuilt their city, and influenced by *Lycomēdes* (another great man whose career was soon put an end to by assassination), they formed a plan of uniting all the Arcadian states into a confederacy, B. C. 371. The proposal was well received, and Megalopolis was founded to be the capital of the union.

In the aristocratic town of Tegea, which was closely allied with Sparta, the change was not effected without much treachery and bloodshed ; and the indignation of the Spartans gave rise to a war, during which they had the aid of Athens, while the Arcadians were supported by the Argives and Thebans. Laconia, into which no invader had set foot for ages, was ravaged by Epaminondas ; who also restored to the Messenians the possession of their ancient

Dynasts ; and in war a *tagus* was chosen to command the forces of the confederacy.

land, and thus deprived the Spartans of half their territory for ever, B. c. 369⁴.

Some years afterwards, B. c. 365, a quarrel arose between the Arcadians and their allies the people of Elis; and the Arcadian rulers, having become masters of Olympia⁵, took money from the treasury of the temple to pay the embodied militia, to the discipline of which much of their new-grown power had been owing. This act of sacrilege gave great offence to the aristocracy, who saw how easily demagogues could avail themselves of a standing army to establish a tyranny. So decided a protest was made by the Mantinēans, that many were encouraged to declare themselves against the ruling party; and it was carried in the general council that the sacrilege should not be repeated. It was also resolved to make peace with Elis, B. c. 363.

The Arcadian democrats now sought to uphold their falling power with the aid of Thebes. They became so desperate⁶, that at Tegea, where the peace was concluded, having the support of a Theban officer, they seized upon several of the leaders of the opposition. This officer was frightened into releasing his prisoners; but Epaminondas, on hearing what had happened, declared war against the Arcadians, who had now the assistance of Sparta and Athens.

He therefore invaded the Peloponnēsus; and having

⁴ So humbled were the Spartans, that they were glad to make an alliance with the Athenians, even when the latter insisted that each should have the command in turn. (See p. 10, note 8.)

⁵ This place was famous for the Olympic Games, celebrated every four years, and frequented by numbers from all parts of Greece. They gave rise to an era, and the Greeks dated events by the Olympiads.

⁶ Their strong support, the militia, was fast dwindling, as the men could not afford to serve without pay; and they now feared to be called to account for what they had done.

heard that the Lacedæmonians were sending their reserve to Mantinêa, where the confederates were assembled, he suddenly marched to Sparta, hoping to surprise it. Owing to the treachery of a deserter, the plan failed ; and Epaminondas, many of whose troops were only to serve a limited time, at length found it necessary to risk a battle. He fell suddenly upon the enemy at Mantinêa ; and was on the point of gaining a complete victory, when he was mortally wounded, and the tide of success was checked, B. C. 362.

It was felt that with Epaminondas all the importance of Thebes was at an end. Both armies soon broke up, and a general peace quickly followed, from which the Spartans were nominally excluded, since they would not recognize the independence of Messène. As they had not the means to recover what they had lost, the active Agesilâus, at the age of eighty, undertook to earn the money for the war, by serving as a mercenary in Egypt, which had revolted against the Persians. But he died as he was returning home, and the hopes of Sparta died with him.

Now that there was no leading power to keep order in Greece, the smaller states were convulsed with fearful party struggles. Many were put to death ; many more became exiles, and were driven to earn their livelihood by serving as mercenaries, a practice once chiefly confined to the poor mountaineers of Arcadia, the Swiss of ancient Greece⁷. For a short time, the increase of piracy had induced the maritime states to consent to the re-establishment of the naval supremacy of Athens. But the decay of the best families, and the admission of many slaves and foreigners, when the tyrants were overthrown, had made

⁷ The growing dislike of the citizens in the free states to personal service, encouraged the increase of mercenaries, to the great detriment of patriotism and good morals.

her citizens as a body less respectable ; and the rule of an ill-managed democracy was so oppressive that the Social War broke out, which ended in the enfranchisement of the allies, B. C. 355 ^a.

SECTION VII.

THE MACEDONIAN PERIOD.

PART I.

The reign of Philip of Macedon.

B. C. 359. *Accession of Philip of Macedon.*

357. *The Phocians seize Delphi.*

352. Philip gains a footing in Thessaly.

349. Philip attacks the Olynthians.

347. Fall of Olynthus.

346. Philip makes peace with Athens, and attacks the Phocians ; *end of the Sacred War.*

Macedonia—inhabited by a people looked upon as barbarians by the Greeks, though of kindred origin ; ruled by a king whose authority was limited by the power of the nobles ; with hardly any trade, and no large towns, except foreign colonies, which were almost independent republics—had but little importance before the accession of *Philip*, the son of *Amyntas*, B. C. 359, who, at the age of twenty-three, had to assert his title to a disputed throne, and to rid his country of the invaders by which it was overrun.

By his courage, genius ⁹, and moderation, he soon retrieved his affairs, and even enlarged his dominions at the

^a During this war, Chabrias fell ; and Timotheus was unjustly fined and disgraced at its close. He was accused of corruption by the brave, but reckless and profligate *Chares*, whom he had overruled.

⁹ He trained his troops so well, that the Macedonian *phalanx* became renowned. The phalanx was a deep battalion of heavy infantry, armed with spears of great length.

expense of his foes the Illyrians and Pæonians. He also increased his means of hiring mercenaries, and of bribing the leading statesmen in Greece, by his conquests in Thrace, which gave him possession of the gold mines of Pangæus; and he acquired great influence in Thessaly by taking part with the aristocracy against the tyrant of Pheræ, B. C. 352. Aided by the revived confederacy of the Olynthians, he attacked the Athenians, who were too much engaged in the war with their allies to oppose him effectually, and deprived them of the towns which belonged to them on the Macedonian coast.

His ambition at length alarmed the Olynthians, who applied for aid to Athens, B. C. 349. As they had the support of *Demosthenes*, a man whose genius overcame every disadvantage of voice, manner, person, and temper, and made him the very greatest of orators; they had several large reinforcements sent out to them. But the arms and the arts of Philip triumphed; and Olynthus was taken and destroyed, its fall being hastened by treachery, B. C. 347. He now made peace with the Athenians; whose ambassadors were either outwitted or corrupted, as no stipulations were made in favour of the Phocians or their allies¹.

The war in Phocis had thus arisen. The Thebans, who had always hated the Phocians, availed themselves of the authority of the Amphictyonic council², to impose on them a ruinous fine for cultivating lands, said to have been devoted to the Delphian Apollo; on the non-payment of

¹ Demosthenes accused *Æschines*, his rival, of having been bribed by Philip; *Æschines* pretended that Demosthenes had been bribed by the Thebans. The rivalry between these orators lasted until B. C. 330, when *Æschines* was forced to retire from Athens.

² This council, to which most of the Greek states sent deputies, had hitherto possessed little political weight, and was chiefly occupied in matters connected with the temple and worship of Apollo at Delphi; a place renowned for its oracle, and for the Pythian Games celebrated, like the Olympic, every four years.

which all their territories were declared to be forfeited. On this the Phocians seized and fortified Delphi, B. C. 357, and, supported by Athens and Sparta, waged a sanguinary war with the Bœotians and their allies³; until, both parties being well-nigh exhausted, Philip, eager to gain a footing in southern Greece, came at the invitation of the Thebans, and turned the scale in their favour, B. C. 346. A congress of the Amphictyons was now assembled, which decreed that the Phocian towns should be destroyed; the inhabitants disarmed, and heavily assessed; and that their privileges at Delphi, and their votes in the council, should be taken from them, and given to Philip.

B. C. 340. Philip besieges Byzantium.

339. Siege of Byzantium raised by Phocion.

338. Amphissian War. *Battle of Chæronæa*. Congress at Corinth.

336. Assassination of Philip.

Athens and the genius of Demosthenes were now the only serious obstacles to the supremacy of Macedon over Greece, and when Philip attacked Byzantium, they forced him to raise the siege, B. C. 339⁴. But he soon found in another sacred war, B. C. 338, a fresh pretext for interfering in Greece, being called upon by the Amphictyons to march against the people of Amphissa, who had resisted their authority. After reducing the Amphissians, he suddenly seized Elatæa, the key of the passes both into Thessaly and Bœotia; so that it was neither possible to prevent his advance nor to cut off his retreat. Such was the dismay which this created, and the eloquence and activity dis-

³ The great Phocian leaders were the unfortunate brothers *Philomelus* and *Onomarchus*.

⁴ The worthless Chares was first sent out on this expedition; but he was so hateful to the allies, that Phocion was ordered to take his place.

played by Demosthenes at this crisis, that a close alliance was made by Athens and Thebes against Philip, which was joined by the Corinthians and others; and in a few weeks, a large, but newly-raised army encountered the veteran forces of Macedon at Chæronëa⁵, B. C. 338. The struggle was desperate; but the victory of Philip was complete.

Philip now behaved with a moderation quite unlooked for. It was his ambition to conquer Persia; and instead of wasting blood and treasure in the conquest of southern Greece, he had the rare wisdom to prefer useful allies to unprofitable subjects. After giving the ascendancy to his own party in most of the states, he summoned a congress of the Greeks at Corinth, in which war was decreed with Persia, and he himself was chosen to the chief command.

But it was not given to him to conquer Asia. While he was celebrating the marriage of his daughter with the king of Epirus, his career was terminated by the hand of *Pausanias*, a young man whose wrongs he had refused to redress, B. C. 336.

⁵ In this battle, young Alexander, Philip's son, annihilated the Theban *Sacred Band*; and Demosthenes, when fleeing, threw away his shield.

THE MACEDONIAN PERIOD.

PART II.

*The Reign of Alexander the Great.*B. C. 336. *Accession of Alexander.*

335. Alexander destroys Thebes.

334. Battle of the Granicus.

333. Battle of Issus.

332. Siege of Tyre. Alexandria founded.

331. *Battle of Arbēla.*

330. Darius slain by Bessus.

327. Defeat of Porus.

323. *Death of Alexander.*

Though not more than twenty years of age, Philip's son *Alexander*, by his extraordinary vigour succeeded in maintaining the position which his father had won. After chastising those, who calculating on his youth and inexperience had revolted against him, and destroying Thebes; he crossed the Hellespont, and by a brilliant victory at the river Granicus, B. C. 334, gained possession of Asia Minor.

At the pass of Issus, leading from Cilicia into Syria, he was encountered by *Darius Codomannus*, the king of Persia, whom he utterly routed, B. C. 333; and he became master of Syria, (the only serious obstacle in his way being Tyre, which was taken after a seven months' siege,) and also of Egypt, in which he founded the town of Alexandria. He then led his troops beyond the Euphrates and the Tigris; and at Gaugamēla near Arbēla, at the foot of the Kurdish mountains, he defeated the huge army of Darius, B. C. 331. The unfortunate monarch fled before the Greeks into his northern provinces, where he was murdered by *Bessus*, one of his satraps; and after a few more struggles, the vast empire of Persia was subdued.

Alexander extended his ambitious views to India, and, crossing the Indus, defeated King *Porus*, who disputed the passage of the Hydaspes, B. C. 327. But when his hard-worked troops reached the Hyphasis, they became discontented, and he thought it prudent to return to Persia.

The real superiority of Alexander, who was the pupil of the renowned *Aristotle*, over common conquerors, was shown in the interest which he took in the welfare of the nations which he had vanquished, and in the great plans of commerce and geographical discovery which he promoted. He was making great efforts to restore the ancient prosperity of Babylon, which he had chosen to be his residence, when he died of a fever brought on by over exertion⁶, B. C. 323.

THE MACEDONIAN PERIOD.

PART III.

From the Death of Alexander to the end of the Confederate War, B. C. 217.

B. C. 323. The Lamian War.

322. Battle of Crannon ; death of Demosthenes.

321. Death of Perdiccas. Division of Alexander's empire.

319. Death of Antipater.

318. War of Polysperchon and Cassander. Death of Phocion.

317. Death of Arrhidæus⁷.

316. Cassander rebuilds Thebes.

⁶ Poison and intemperance are mentioned by some writers as the causes of his death ; but their accounts are ill authenticated.

⁷ The other members of the royal family were murdered at various intervals. The last was killed B. C. 309.

- B. C. 306. Antigonus takes the title of king.
 301. Battle of Ipsus.
 293. Demetrius Poliorcetes conquers Macedon.
 287. Demetrius driven out of Macedon by Pyrrhus.
 Lysimachus drives out Pyrrhus.
 286. Demetrius surrenders himself to Seleucus.
 281. Lysimachus defeated and slain by Seleucus.
 280. Seleucus murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, who is
 slain by the Gauls.
 279. The Gauls destroyed at Delphi.

When the death of Alexander was known in Greece, the Athenians and Demosthenes⁸ formed a league of most of the Greek states against the power of Macedon, and forced *Antipater*, the governor of Alexander's European dominions, to shut himself up in the town of Lamia in Thessaly. But *Antipater* was reinforced: the confederates were defeated at Crannon, B. C. 322, and they were soon overpowered. The constitution of Athens was remodelled; a Macedonian garrison was placed in *Munychia*⁹; and Demosthenes took poison that he might not fall into the hands of *Antipater*. From henceforth Athens had little political importance.

Alexander's two infant sons were set aside because their mothers were Persians, and his brother, the weak-minded *Arrhidæus*, was made king under the title of Philip, *Perdiccas* being appointed his guardian. The generals of Alexander, who governed the conquered provinces, had the real power; and when *Perdiccas* aspired to the throne, they opposed his pretensions. He was assassinated in his tent during the war, B. C. 321, and *Antipater* chosen protector in his stead. *Lysimachus* ruled in Thrace, *Antigonus* in Asia Minor, *Seleucus* in Babylonia, and *Ptolemy* in Egypt.

⁸ He had lately returned from exile, which he had incurred on a very doubtful charge of bribery, B. C. 324.

⁹ *Munychia*, like the *Piræus*, was one of the harbours of Athens.

When Antipater also died, B. C. 319, he left his power to his comrade *Polysperchon* ; but his son *Cassander* disputed his will, and with the aid of Antigonus got possession of Macedonia, and rebuilt Thebes. During the struggle, Polysperchon had attempted to restore the democracies in Greece, (on which occasion, *Phocion*, the most upright statesman Athens ever knew, was forced to drink hemlock,) and the ill-fated Arrhidæus and the rest of the royal family were murdered. It was not, however, until the year 306 B. C., that any of the generals of Alexander took the title of king. *Antigonus* set the example, which was soon followed by the rest.

Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus, at length combined to oppose the ambition of Antigonus and his son *Demetrius Poliorcetes* (thus surnamed from his skill in besieging towns). At the battle of Ipsus, B. C. 301, Antigonus lost his life and his dominions : but Demetrius afterwards retrieved his fortunes ; and when Cassander was dead, and his sons, who were at feud with each other, had perished, he became master of Macedonia, B. C. 293. Seven years afterwards, he was driven out by *Pyrrhus*¹, the warlike king of Epirus, who soon had to give way to Lysimachus of Thrace.

Lysimachus, at the end of five years and a half, fell in battle against Seleucus, who did not long enjoy his triumph, being murdered by *Ptolemy Ceraunus*, B. C. 280. The latter, in a few months, was slain by the Gauls, whose immense host overran Macedon, and the next year forced the pass of Thermopylæ, and invaded Greece. Like the Persians, they failed at Delphi ; and when they retreated, they were overpowered and destroyed.

¹ Demetrius went to Asia, and fell into the power of Seleucus, who confined him for the rest of his life, which was shortened by intemperance.

- B. C. 280. *Rise of the Achæan League.*
 278. Antigonus Gonātas king of Macedon.
 272. Pyrrhus slain at Argos.
 251. Arātus strengthens the Achæan League.
 240. Death of Agis IV.
 239. Demetrius II. king of Macedon.
 229. Antigonus Doson governs Macedon.
 225. Reforms of Cleomenes III.
 222. Defeat of Cleomenes at Sellasia. Death of Cleomenes.
 220. Philip begins to reign. The Ætolians defeat the Achæans at Caphyæ. Confederate War.
 217. End of the Confederate War.
 213. Death of Arātus.
 188. Fall of Sparta.
 183. Death of Philopœmen.

Several pretenders once more disputed the throne of Macedon; which was won at length by *Antigonus Gonātas*, the son of Demetrius Poliorcētes, B. C. 278. When Pyrrhus was slain at Argos, B. C. 272, Macedon, under Antigonus and his son and successor *Demetrius*, became again the leading power in Greece, though its influence was somewhat checked by the rise of the Achæan League, B. C. 280. The importance of this union of the towns of Achaia was much increased by the accession of Sicyon, by means of *Arātus*, B. C. 251, who also induced the Corinthians, Athenians, Argives, Arcadians, and others, to join the confederacy.

Meanwhile great changes had taken place in Sparta, where the young king *Agis IV.* had brought in an agrarian law to revive the equal division of lands, which had become obsolete², and had driven his colleague *Leonidas* into exile. But obstacles were thrown in his way by some of his own partizans; who cunningly advised him to introduce his

² He was also for admitting many of the Perioeciāns to the full citizenship.

measures by a bill for the abolition of debts, and having got what they wanted, had no wish to give up their lands. The people became discontented : Leonidas returned, and Agis was seized and strangled, B. C. 241.

The designs of Agis were revived by *Cleomenes*, the son and successor of Leonidas his rival. He waged a successful war with the Achæans ; in the course of which he suddenly left the army with his mercenaries, and went to Sparta, where he murdered the Ephors, increased the number of the citizens, and revived the old laws and institutions of the land³, B. C. 225.

But Cleomenes had a deadly enemy in Arātus, whose hatred led him to forget the interests of Grecian freedom. *Antigonus Doson*, by whom Macedon was now governed, his nephew *Philip*, the son of Demetrius the late king, being a minor, was called in to the aid of the Achæans ; and the war was terminated by the defeat of the Spartans at the pass of Sellasia, B. C. 222. Cleomenes fled to Egypt, where he afterwards failed in a plot against the government, and committed suicide.

Antigonus restored the former state of things at Sparta⁴, and dying, was succeeded by Philip, B. C. 220. In the same year, the Achæans, defeated at Caphyæ in Arcadia by the piratical Ætolians, owing to the unskilfulness of Arātus, called upon the young prince and their other allies

³ But though he created a second king, he named his brother to the office, instead of restoring it to the house of Procles.

⁴ The Spartans fell subsequently under the power of hateful tyrants, and were at length induced by the Achæan general *Philopœmen* to join the Achæan League. But they revolted against their new friends, and Philopœmen obliged them to consent to the abolition of the laws of Lycurgus, and to give up their national independence B. C. 188.

Philopœmen of Megalopolis, "the last of the Greeks," was taken and put to death, B. C. 183, by the Messenians, who had revolted against the Achæans.

for assistance ; and the Confederate War was carried on for three years, when the attention of all parties was fixed upon the struggle between the Carthaginians and the Romans. It was, therefore, agreed to make peace.

Arātus is said to have been poisoned, B. C. 213 ; his moderation having become disagreeable to Philip, who of late had become overbearing and tyrannical.

The subsequent fate of Greece will be set forth in the History of Rome.

PART II.

HISTORY OF ROME.

SECTION I.

FROM THE BUILDING OF THE CITY TO ITS BURNING BY THE GAULS.

B. C. 753. *Rome built* (751 according to Cato).

510. *Expulsion of the Tarquins.*

ROME is said to have been founded by *Romulus*, B. C. 753, and to have been governed by kings for 240 years. The history of these is almost wholly fabulous, and the origin of the city is enveloped in mystery¹.

It was inhabited at first by three tribes, the *Ramnes*, *Titienses*, and *Luceres*; which last was inferior to the others, and was excluded from the highest offices. Each of these was divided into ten Curies, or Wards, which were

¹ *Romulus* is said to have killed his twin brother *Remus*. He also agreed to take the Sabine *Tatius* as his colleague. The names of his successors are *Numa Pompilius*, *Tullus Hostilius*, *Ancus Martius*, *Tarquinius Priscus*, *Servius Tullius*, and *Tarquinius Superbus*.

Rome is conjectured to have been a union of two closely adjoining but independent towns, named *Roma* and *Quirium*. The combined people were called *Populus Romanus* [*et*] *Quirites*, which was corrupted into *Populus Romanus Quiritium*.

further subdivided into ten Houses or Clans (*Gentes*)². The Curies met for business in a place called the Comitium; hence their assemblies were called *Comitia Curiāta*. There was also a Senate, in which each *Gens* had a representative.

The whole body of the original citizens was called the '*Populus*,' and the individual members *Patricians*³. No foreigner could settle in Rome unless he had the protection of a Patrician, called his *Patron*, to whom he became a *Client*. Both parties were bound to assist each other, and the connexion thus formed was hereditary.

From the class of emancipated Clients⁴, and still more from the inhabitants of conquered towns, arose an order of men called the '*Plebs*,' or *Plebeians*. Many of these last were equal in birth and wealth to the Patricians; yet they were not allowed to intermarry with them, nor to have any share in the government of the country.

Servius Tullius, the last king but one, is said to have modified the constitution in their favour⁵. The Patricians, together with the wealthiest Plebeians, were enrolled among the centuries of the knights or equestrians, as they were called, from serving in the cavalry. The rest of the commonalty was divided into classes and centuries, which were so arranged that the wealthy ones contained fewer individuals. The centuries, assembled in the *Campus Martius*⁶ (*Comitia Centuriāta*), voted in elections and on matters

² Persons belonging to the two senior tribes were said to be *maiorum gentium*; those belonging to the third tribe, *minorum gentium*.

³ Or else *Patres*.

⁴ It often happened that the client was emancipated by the extinction of his patron's family.

⁵ He also divided the Plebs into thirty local tribes, and made an agrarian law in its favour. See p. 60, note 2.

⁶ Or *Field of Mars*, the system of the centuries being a military as well as a civil organization.

laid before them by the Senate. Whatever they agreed to was then submitted to the curies, which now bore some analogy to a House of Lords.

Tarquinius Superbus, the last king, overthrew this constitution, probably with the aid of the Patricians. But he became so tyrannical, that all parties—headed, it is said, by *L. Junius Brutus*—joined in expelling him⁷, and restoring the former state of things; with this exception, that two annual magistrates, at first called *Prætors*, afterwards *Consuls*⁸, were substituted for the king. This revolution, which took place B. C. 510, was not effected without struggles, which cost Rome at least one-third of her territory, and long retarded her progress.

B. C. 501. T. Lartius, First Dictator.

494. Secession of the Plebs.

493. Sp. Cassius makes the League with the Latins.

486. *Agrarian Law of Spurius Cassius*. League with the Hernicians.

485. Condemnation of Sp. Cassius.

471. *Pubilian Rogations*.

462. Law of Terentilius.

452. *The Decemvirate*.

449. *Abolition of the Decemvirate*.

The Patricians soon endeavoured, and not without success, to deprive the Plebeians of the privileges which had been lately granted them. Finding that they were often thwarted by the right of appeal which had been granted to

⁷ The wrongs done to *Lucretia*, a noble Roman matron, by the son of Tarquin, are said to have completed the exasperation against the royal family.—The Etruscan *Porsēna* of Clusium overcame the Romans during the troubles which followed the expulsion of the king, and retained most of his conquests.

⁸ *Prætor* means general: *consul* means colleague. At this period, Plebeian knights, called *conscripti* in contradistinction to the *Patres*, were admitted into the Senate, and for a very short time one of the consuls seems to have been a Plebeian.

the Plebeians, they instituted the irresponsible office of *Dictator*, B.C. 501⁹. This magistrate, who was only appointed in times of tumult and danger, was invested with absolute power, which he could not retain beyond six months.

Many of the Plebeians at this time were in debt: for as they lived chiefly upon the land, they had greatly suffered from the late loss of territory and the ravages of the enemy; besides which, most of the public burthens were thrown upon them by the Patricians. When they became insolvent, they and their families were dragged away in chains to the workhouses of their unrelenting creditors; a state of things which gave rise to such deep discontent, that after some years of dissension, the whole body of the Plebeians took up arms against their oppressors and their clients, B. C. 494. The feeling that they were well matched, and the dread of foreign interference, led both parties to make a compromise; and at the *Mons Sacer*, where most of the Plebeians were encamped, it was agreed that the persons of the Plebeian tribunes¹, to whom the injured betook themselves for aid, should be inviolate. This concession, by securing to the Plebeians the exercise of the right of appeal, gave the first serious check to the overbearing tyranny of the Patricians.

Not long afterwards, B.C. 486, the consul, *Spurius Cassius* (who, by his league with the Latins and Hernicans, eventually enabled Rome to withstand the formidable attacks of the Æqui and Volsci,) attempted to redress a great grievance by his *Agrarian law*, in which it was enacted that the Patricians should not only be made to pay the quit rents which they owed for the use of the public

⁹ The *master of the horse* (magister equitum) was his deputy.

¹ Two and afterwards ten tribunes were annually appointed. They had the power of interposing a *veto* to the enactment of new laws.

land, but should also give the Plebeians the portion to which they were entitled by the law of Servius Tullius¹. But as soon as he was out of office, he was condemned for treason by the curies, and scourged and beheaded. The execution of his law was also evaded by the Patricians; who, to strengthen themselves, abolished the distinction between the senior tribes and the Luceres, and admitted the latter to the consulship.

In the year 471 B. C., notwithstanding their determined opposition, the tribune *Volero Publilius Philo* succeeded in carrying a *rogation* or bill, which transferred the election of the tribunes from the centuries, in which the clients of the Patricians voted, to the assembly of the tribes (*Comitia Tributa*), which was likewise to have the right hitherto withheld from the Plebs, of originating and freely discussing public measures.

The extinction of several Patrician houses had also of late increased the power of the Plebeians by the accession of their clients. A law for the thorough reform of the state was now proposed by the tribune *Terentilius*, B. C. 462, which for some years caused fierce commotions. At length the Patricians agreed to revise the laws and institutions of the state, and a *Decemvirate*, consisting of ten of their number, was appointed for that purpose, B. C. 452.

¹ In the early ages of Rome, each Patrician had two *jugera* of land (somewhat more than an English acre), and the right of feeding his cattle on the public ground, paying, however, a tax of so much a head for the privilege.

An *Agrarian law* was made in favour of the Plebeians by Servius Tullius, who ordered that they should also have the use of the public pastures, and that those who had no land should have seven *jugera* of arable land assigned them in newly-conquered districts. The rest of the arable land was to be given to the Patricians, who were to have the use of it on condition of paying a portion of the produce to the state. They had not only neglected to do this, but had even deprived the Plebeians of their rights.

These abolished the consulate, and established in its stead an annual Decemvirate of five Patricians and five Plebeians; and they compiled a code of laws³, which placed both orders much more on a level. But the government of these soon became tyrannical: and when *Appius Claudius*, a man who belonged to the most domineering and insolent of all the Patrician families, adjudged the free-born *Virginia*, whom he sought to get into his own power, to be the slave of one of his clients; she was stabbed in the forum by her father, *L. Virginius*, who had rather see his daughter dead than dishonoured, and the exasperated people again encamped on the Sacred Mount. The Patricians were forced to give way: the Decemvirate was abolished, B.C. 449, and two Patrician consuls⁴ elected. At the same time, the tribunate was restored; the power of the tribes made equal to that of the centuries; and, by the law of *Duilius*, it was made a capital crime to hinder the appointment of tribunes, or to create a magistrate from whom there was no appeal.

B.C. 445. *Canuleian Law*.

444. The first Military Tribunes elected.

443. Institution of the Censorship. (433. *Lex Æmilia*.)

396. Camillus takes Veii.

390. Battle of the Alia; *the Gauls burn Rome*.

384. Condemnation of Manlius Capitolinus.

An important bill was carried by the tribune *Canuleius*, by which marriage between the two orders was made lawful, B.C. 445. His colleagues likewise tried to gain one of the consulships for the Plebeians; and after violent opposition, a compromise was agreed to, and *military*

³ The code was engraved on *ten* brazen tablets, to which the new decemvirs added *two* more, thus completing the *twelve tables*, which became the foundation of the Roman or Civil Law.

⁴ Appius Claudius, after the custom of his family, committed suicide before his trial came on.

tribunes, whose proper number was six (three from each order), were chosen instead of consuls. But the Patricians still retained much of the old power of the consulship by the creation of a new office, to be held only by persons of their own body. Two *censors*, elected every five years⁵, had the letting out of the taxes and customs to those who farmed them, and conducted the *census* or registry of the citizens, deciding who were entitled to be senators or knights, or to have votes in the tribes, and degrading those who were unworthy or unqualified. The succession of the military tribunes was more than once interrupted by the Patricians, who had eventually to yield.

Meanwhile the territory of Rome had slowly increased ; and in the year 396 B. C., Veii, a powerful city not more than twelve miles distant, was taken by *M. Furius Camillus*, a renowned Patrician chief. But shortly afterwards, the Gauls, who, under their *Brennus*, or leader, had overrun the north of Italy, gave the Romans a complete defeat on the banks of the Alia, B. C. 390. Rome was plundered and burnt by them ; and they were also on the point of reducing the Capitol or citadel by famine, when, hearing that their presence was wanted at home, they agreed to raise the siege on the payment of a heavy contribution⁶. So much were the Romans enfeebled, that it was once proposed to remove to Veii instead of rebuilding the city.

⁵ The censors at first remained in office during the five years. By the *Lex Æmilia*, B. C. 433, their power ceased at the end of a year and a half, and there were no censors until the next *census*.

⁶ The story of Camillus raising the siege and defeating the Gauls is only founded on national vanity. *M. Manlius Capitolinus*, who is said to have distinguished himself in the defence of the Capitol, was afterwards accused by the Patricians of aiming at royalty. He was condemned and put to death, B. C. 384.

SECTION II.

FROM THE REBUILDING OF ROME TO THE END OF THE
WAR WITH TARENTUM.

B. C. 367. *The Licinian Laws.*

366. First Plebeian Consul. First Prætor.

356. First Plebeian Dictator. (351. First Plebeian
Censor.)

343. *First Samnite War* (ends 341).

340. Latin War; Torquatus and Decius (ends 338).

339. *The Publilian Laws.*

These public miseries were attended with much private distress, and the poor were loaded with debt. At this alarming crisis, the tribune, *C. Licinius Stolo*, brought in three rogations,—one to relieve the debtors; another, to abolish the military tribunate, and to secure one of the consulships to the Plebeians; and also the famous *Agrarian* law, that no one should hold more than 500 *jugera* of the public land, or feed more than one hundred head of large, and five hundred head of small cattle, in the public pastures. All the rents and dues of the state were to be rigidly paid up; and employment was to be given to free labourers. After a struggle of some years, during which Licinius, who was continued in his office, prevented the election of the military tribunes; the Patricians, after vainly appointing Camillus dictator, gave way, and the Plebeians were emancipated, B. C. 367⁷.

The Romans, now successful against the Gauls and their other foes, were, in the year 343 B. C., engaged in a war with

⁷ The Plebeians consented that the city *prætor*, or chief justice, should be a Patrician.

the Samnites, the bravest of the Italian nations ; who had attacked the Sidicines, and defeated their allies, the Campanians. The Romans, being called in to the aid of the vanquished, for a short time distinguished themselves ; but they abandoned their friends and made peace, B. C. 341, as they were on the eve of a serious conflict with the Latins, who had claimed the Roman citizenship⁸.

In the course of the war which followed, *Manlius Torquatus*, the Patrician consul, put his own son to death for fighting with a Latin horseman without leave ; and his Plebeian colleague, *P. Decius*, in order to secure the victory to his country, devoted himself to the infernal gods, and, riding into the midst of the enemy, perished. In the year 338 B. C., Latium was completely subdued.

The Romans, however, had the wisdom to conciliate the Latins by granting them most of the privileges of citizenship⁹. In the same spirit, it had been determined to put an end to all discord between the two orders at home ; and the Patrician consul, *Æmilius*, had made his Plebeian colleague, *Q. Publilius Philo*, dictator, who reduced the power of the curies to a shadow, by a law which obliged the Patricians to give a previous consent to whatever might be brought before the centuries. It was then enacted that the resolutions of the Plebs should be binding on all the citizens¹ ; and that one of the censors must be a Plebeian.

B. C. 326. *Second Samnite War.*

325. *Papirius Cursor* dictator.

321. *Surrender at the Caudine Forks.*

312. *Censorship of Appius Claudius Cæcus.*

311. *Etruscan War.*

⁸ They demanded, also, that one of the consuls and half the senate should be Latins.

⁹ In most instances, the franchise was withheld from the Latins.

¹ For some time, the Patricians had been allowed to vote in the assembly of the tribes, though not to become tribunes.

B. C. 304. End of the Second Samnite War. Censorship of Fabius and Decius.

298. *Third Samnite War.*

295. Decius devotes himself.

292. Pontius taken prisoner by Fabius.

290. *End of the Samnite Wars.*

286. Last Secession of the Plebs. *Hortensian Law.*

Ten years afterwards, B. C. 326, the war with the Samnites again broke out; during which the dictator *Papirius Cursor* was with difficulty prevented from beheading *Q. Fabius*, afterwards called *Maximus*, his master of the horse, for gaining a victory when ordered not to fight. The Samnites at length sued for peace, but could obtain no reasonable terms.

The next year, B. C. 321, the Roman army was surrounded at the Caudine Forks, a mountain pass near Caudium, by the Samnite general *C. Pontius*. Famine obliged the consuls to surrender. They agreed to restore all that had been conquered; and their troops were disarmed, and forced to pass under the yoke. On their return home, *Postumius*, one of the consuls, advised the senate to deliver him up to the Samnites, together with those who had sworn to the treaty, and to continue the war. This was done; but Pontius indignantly dismissed the persons surrendered.

The Romans quickly recovered from the effects of this reverse; and they were on the point of subduing the Samnites, when they were also attacked by the Etruscans, B. C. 311. These were successively defeated by Fabius and *P. Decius*, and at last the exhausted Samnites were made to acknowledge the supremacy of Rome, B. C. 304².

² Fabius and Decius were made censors that year. They removed into the four city tribes all the freedmen whom *Appius Claudius the Blind*, in the year 312 B. C., had distributed among the tribes in order to turn the scale in his favour. A new system of centuries, based, not on the old classes of *Servius Tullius*, but on the tribes, was also now adopted.

In a few years, the Romans were again at war with the Samnites and Etruscans, B. C. 298. These formed a junction with the Umbrians and Gauls, B. C. 295 ; but they were defeated by Fabius and Decius, the latter of whom followed his father's example, and devoted himself. Three years afterwards, B. C. 292, Fabius, acting as legate for the consul his son, who had lately sustained a serious defeat, won a great victory over C. Pontius ; who was led as a prisoner to Rome, and beheaded³. This really decided the war, which ended at last in the year 290 B. C.

B. C. 283. War with the Gauls and Etruscans.

281. War with Tarentum.

280. *Pyrrhus invades Italy.* Battle at the Siris.

278. Pyrrhus visits Sicily.

275. *Battle of Beneventum.*

274. Pyrrhus leaves Italy.

272. Tarentum submits.

The Romans, while again engaged with the Gauls and Etruscans, the former of whom they defeated, and with the latter they concluded peace, declared war with the people of Tarentum, who had insulted their ambassadors, B. C. 281. The Tarentines, who were luxurious and effeminate, called upon Pyrrhus, the warlike king of Epirus, to come and help them. He arrived in Italy, B. C. 280, and, owing to his elephants, animals to which the Romans were altogether unaccustomed, defeated the consul *Valerius Lævinus* at the river Siris. He then sent his able minister, the orator *Cineas*, to Rome ; who failed in his object of obtaining an advantageous peace.

Pyrrhus gained another victory ; but as he lost some of his best men, and his Italian allies were not to be trusted,

³ The last secession of the Plebs took place not long afterwards, B. C. 286, and the dictator *Hortensius* passed a law by which the veto of the senate seems to have been abolished.

he chose to pass over into Sicily, whither he had been invited to oppose the Carthaginians. At the end of three years, he was recalled by the entreaties of the Tarentines, B. C. 275, and was beaten in a decisive battle near Beneventum by the consul *M. Curius Dentatus*, the conqueror of the Sabines. He left Italy the following year, and the Romans now proceeded to establish their power over the southern and eastern states of Italy.

Most of these states were allowed, under the name of *Socii*, or allies, to retain their own laws and magistrates. But colonies were planted in their territories to keep them in check, and they had to furnish a contingent of troops whenever Rome was at war.

SECTION III.

THE FIRST PUNIC AND THE ILLYRIAN AND GALLIC WARS.

- B. C. 869. *Carthage built.*
- 264. *First Punic War.*
- 260. Victory of Duilius.
- 255. Defeat of Regulus.
- 250. Battle of Panormus. Embassy of Regulus. Siege of Lilybæum.
- 249. Battle of Drepana. Claudius names Glicia dictator.
- 241. *Battle of the Ægatian Isles; end of the War.* Troubles at Carthage.
- 240. Sardinia revolts from Carthage.
- 229. Illyrian War.
- 225. Gallic Wars.
- 222. Marcellus ends the Gallic Wars.

Carthage, a colony of Phœnician Tyre, said to have been founded by Queen *Elisa* or *Dido*, B. C. 869, had subdued most of the north coast of Africa, the Balearic Islands, Sardinia, part of the south of Spain, and the western half

of Sicily⁴, before it entered into the lists with Rome for the empire of the world. Its commerce was great, and its government aristocratical. But its system towards its conquered subjects was avaricious and cruel, and its armies chiefly consisted of mercenaries.

The war thus arose. After the death of the Syracusan tyrant *Agathocles*, B. C. 288⁴, the Mamertines, his Campanian mercenaries, forced to leave Syracuse, treacherously seized Messāna, murdering all the grown-up males. *Hiero*, the king of Syracuse, aided by the Carthaginians, laid siege to Messāna; and, to save themselves, they sought the protection of Rome, B. C. 264. The senate hesitated to grant it, having lately punished the survivors of a Campanian legion which had formerly seized upon Rhegium; but the consuls referred the question to the people, who voted in favour of this unprincipled war.

The Romans were victorious over the Carthaginians and *Hiero*, whom they forced to become their ally. But without a fleet they could not keep the Carthaginians out of Sicily, and they neither knew how to build nor to manage large ships of war. A Carthaginian quinquireme, driven ashore in Bruttium, served them as a model; and as their new vessels and hastily-formed seamen were no match for the enemy, they invented boarding bridges, which might be grappled fast to their ships, thus changing a sea-fight into a hand to hand contest. Before long, a victory gained by *C. Duilius*, B. C. 260, made them masters of the sea.

⁴ The Carthaginians, after the failure of the Athenians, took the part of the Egestæans, and but for the energy of *Dionysius*, who had become tyrant of Syracuse, would have conquered Sicily. His son *Dionysius II.* was deposed by the Corinthian patriot *Timoleon*, who also defeated the Carthaginians at the Crimæus, B. C. 339.

⁵ When besieged by the Carthaginians in Syracuse, *Agathocles* had boldly invaded Africa. After many triumphs and reverses he made a tolerable peace.

Four years afterwards, the war was carried into Africa by *M. Atilius Regulus*, who easily ravaged the country, in which, as Carthage had too much reason to mistrust her subjects, there were few fortified places. The generals opposed to him, though strong in cavalry and elephants, timidly kept to the hills, and were beaten; so that the Carthaginians sued for peace. But he had no moderation; and in despair they gave the chief command to *Xanthippus*, (a Lacedæmonian mercenary, who had pointed out the faults made by the generals,) by whom he was overcome in a disastrous battle, and taken prisoner, B. C. 255⁶.

Though the Romans also lost two great fleets, which were wrecked about this time, they were successful in Sicily⁷, where only Lilybæum and one or two more places remained to the Carthaginians, who once more sought peace in vain. *Regulus* accompanied the embassy; but he is said to have argued strongly against it. He died soon afterwards in captivity; not, however, from violence, as is commonly fabled.

Lilybæum continued to hold out under the gallant *Himilco*, and the yet greater general *Hamilcar Barca* still upheld the cause of Carthage in Sicily. The defeat of *P. Claudius Pulcher* at the port of Drepana, into which he had rashly sailed to attack the enemy, and the wreck of a large fleet and convoy, B. C. 249, so dispirited the Romans, that for some years they entirely abandoned the sea. *Claudius*, who, when commanded to name a dictator, insolently appointed his scribe *Glicia*, the son of a freedman, was arraigned for high treason, and died an exile.

At length the Romans made a strong effort, and fitted out a fleet, which, under the command of *C. Lutatius*

⁶ *Xanthippus* had the prudence to return home after his victory, dreading the envy which a foreigner was sure to meet with.

⁷ An important victory was gained at Panormus by *L. Cæcilius Metellus*, B. C. 250.

Catulus, gained a decisive victory off the Ægatian Islands, B. C. 241. The Carthaginians crucified *Hanno*, their ill-fated admiral, and purchased peace by evacuating Sicily,—which thus became the first Roman province,—and paying a heavy contribution.

Both nations had been nearly ruined by the taxation and sufferings of the war. The pay of the Carthaginian mercenaries being in arrear, they revolted, an example followed by the oppressed Lybians; and a dreadful civil war raged in Africa for three years, when it was quelled by *Hamilcar*. Sardinia likewise revolted, and was taken possession of by the Romans, who had the meanness to extort an additional contribution from their distressed rivals.

Illyrian and Gallic Wars.

For a short time the temple of Janus at Rome was shut as a sign of peace, B. C. 235. Six years afterwards, the Romans attacked the piratical Illyrians, whose queen *Teuta* had murdered their ambassadors, and they made them tributaries.

A more dangerous struggle, which would have been fatal, had it taken place during the Punic War, awaited Rome, B. C. 225, when several of the Gallic nations united against her, and burst upon Etruria. At the end of three years, the arms of Rome were triumphant*, and her supremacy was extended over the north of Italy.

* M. Claudius Marcellus in this war won the "*Spolia opima*," by killing *Viridomarus*, the king of the Insubrian Gauls, with his own hand.

SECTION IV.

THE SECOND PUNIC WAR.

- B.C. 238. Hamilcar goes out to Spain.
229. Death of Hamilcar.
221. Death of Hasdrubal.
219. Saguntum taken. *Second Punic War*.
218. Passage of the Alps. Battles of the Ticinus and Trebia.
217. Battle of the Trasimene Lake. Fabius Dictator.
216. *Battle of Cannæ*. Revolt of Capua and other allies.
215. Postumius slain.

The great Hamilcar, who saw that Carthage was weak because she had no native army, crossed over into Spain, where there was a warlike population and productive silver-mines, to increase her dominions there. He fell in battle, B.C. 229, and was succeeded by his son-in-law *Hasdrubal*, the founder of New Carthage. When the latter was assassinated, B.C. 221, *Hannibal*, the son of Hamilcar, by whom, when a boy, he had been made to swear eternal hatred to Rome, obtained the command at the age of five-and-twenty, and formed the grand design of invading Italy.

While the Carthaginians were conquering half of Spain, and making alliances in the independent districts, it had been agreed with the Romans, that they were not to pass beyond the banks of the Ebro. The city of Saguntum, though on the south side of the river, claimed the protection of Rome, notwithstanding which, Hannibal laid siege to it. After a desperate defence, it was stormed, and its inhabitants either killed or enslaved, B.C. 219. The Romans made vain complaints, and war was openly declared.

The next year, Hannibal began his march, leaving his brother *Hasdrubal* in command of Spain. He crossed the Pyrenees with 60,000 men, forced the passage of the Rhone, and, hastening to the Alps, made his way over the Little St. Bernard, and reached Italy with the loss of more than half his army from cold, hunger, the attacks of the mountaineers, and the fatigue of marching through roads which a snow-storm had made almost impassable. *P. Cornelius Scipio*, one of the consuls, advanced to oppose him, but was defeated and wounded in a cavalry skirmish at the *Ticinus*. The Romans now fell back on *Placentia*, and encamped behind the *Trebia*, where they waited for the arrival of *Tib. Sempronius*, the other consul; who, contrary to Scipio's advice, risked a battle. Hannibal provoked him to cross the river at midwinter, and his men, wet, tired, hungry, half frozen, and assailed by an ambuscade, were routed with great loss.

In the year 217, Hannibal entered Etruria, eluding the new consul, *C. Flaminius*, by actually wading through the marshes of the Arno; a painful march which cost him the loss of many men, most of his beasts of burthen, and the sight of one of his eyes. Flaminius hastened to overtake Hannibal, who waited for him in a narrow pass on the borders of the *Trasimene lake*, and, as the weather was foggy, took him by surprise. The Romans were again beaten, and Flaminius was slain.

The alarm at Rome was so great, that *Q. Fabius Maximus* was made dictator. Fabius saw that a mere militia was no match for a veteran army; and instead of hazard-ing an engagement, he trained his men for warfare by watching the movements of Hannibal, who ravaged *Apulia* and *Campania*, and tried to provoke him to fight⁹. The

⁹ Fabius was now called *Cunctator*, "*the Delayer*." As yet the Romans had no standing army.

prudence of Fabius was ill understood at Rome, and *Minucius*, his master of the horse, who had gained some slight advantages when he was absent, was made equal to him in power, and had half the army given him. Minucius was soon led by his rashness into an ambuscade, from which he was rescued by Fabius, to whom he now surrendered his authority.

The year after, B. C. 216, a Roman army of twice the usual force, under the consuls *C. Æmilius Paullus* and *C. Terentius Varro*, a butcher's son, encamped on the Aufidus, near Cannæ, in Apulia. It was not, however, until the beginning of August that Varro risked an engagement. Hannibal, whose skill made up for his inferiority in numbers, now gained so complete a victory that Æmilius Paullus and more than 40,000 Romans were slain, and most of the survivors taken prisoners.

Instead of marching against Rome, which was too distant to be taken by surprise, and which he would have had to besiege in the unhealthy season, Hannibal began to detach its allies. The Romans soon recovered from their consternation; and though *Postumius*, the consul elect, lost his army and his life in the north of Italy against the Gauls, and most of the Samnites, Bruttians, and Lucanians rose against them, while famine and distress were severely felt at Rome, they raised fresh troops, and made war on a greater scale than ever. So high was their spirit, that they refused to ransom the prisoners taken at Cannæ, not even to save them from being sold for slaves; and when Terentius Varro returned home, he was met by the senate, and publicly thanked for not having despaired of the commonwealth.

B. C. 216. Hieronymus succeeds Hiero.

215. Hannibal repulsed at Nola. Treaty between Hannibal and Philip. Success of the Scipios in Spain.

214. Marcellus lays siege to Syracuse.

- 212. *Marcellus takes Syracuse.* The Scipios slain in Spain.
- 211. Siege of Capua. Scipio is sent to Spain.
- 210. Scipio takes New Carthage.
- 208. Marcellus slain.
- 207. *Battle of the Metaurus.*
- 204. Scipio invades Africa.
- 203. Syphax taken prisoner. Death of Sophonisba.
- 202. *Battle of Zama.*
- 201. *End of the Second Punic War.*

Hannibal, after being foiled by *M. Claudius Marcellus* in an attempt on Nola, wintered at Capua, the chief city of Campania, which had basely leagued itself with him. The luxuries of Capua are said to have enervated his troops; but the truth is, that as their numbers were lessening fast, and few reinforcements were sent him by the jealous government of Carthage¹, he was obliged to fill up the vacancies with raw recruits: while, on the other hand, the Roman soldiery were quickly acquiring the habits and discipline of a standing army. The fickle Gauls in the north were not to be trusted; his Campanian allies were cowards; and it was only in the south of Italy that he could find a firm footing.

In the year 215 B. C., the Romans were alarmed by the detection of a correspondence between Hannibal and Philip king of Macedon. They had also lost their old ally in Sicily, king Hiero, after whose death² Syracuse fell into a state of anarchy, and joined itself with Carthage. At this crisis, the candidates for the consulship were set aside by the advice of Fabius, as being only commonplace men, and himself and Marcellus chosen, B. C. 214. Marcellus undertook the war against Syracuse: it ended in the capture and pillage of the city after a long siege, on which occasion

¹ With Spain, Gaul, and Africa, from which his best soldiers had been collected, he had now little communication.

² The defection from Rome began under his profligate grandson *Hieronimus*, who was soon assassinated.

the great mathematician, *Archimēdes*, by whose engineering skill the Romans had been long baffled, was killed by a soldier ³.

The next year, B. C. 211, Capua was closely blockaded; and though Hannibal tried to make a diversion in its favour by marching against Rome, it was forced to surrender at discretion. Some of the inhabitants killed themselves, and the rest were either put to death or sold for slaves. A proconsul was also sent to Spain, where P. Scipio and his brother *Cnæus*, after gaining several victories, had both perished. *P. Cornelius Scipio*, the son of the late P. Scipio, being the only candidate, was chosen at the early age of twenty-four; who took New Carthage, and, notwithstanding a dangerous mutiny of the Italian soldiers in the Roman service, gained a complete ascendancy in Spain.

A great obstacle was removed out of his way by the departure of Hasdrubal, who had been ordered by the Carthaginians to march to Italy in aid of his brother. Hasdrubal, when he reached Placentia, lost time in the siege of the place; and his letters unfortunately fell into the hands of the Roman consul, *C. Claudius Nero*, who had to oppose Hannibal, while his colleague, *M. Livius Salinātor*, was to encounter Hasdrubal, who was again moving southwards. Nero, a man of great energy, hastened, in the most secret manner possible, with a detachment of his troops to the support of Livius. The sagacious Hasdrubal found out that the enemy had been reinforced, and tried to retreat behind the Metaurus; but he failed, owing to the desertion of his guides, and, being overtaken by the Romans, he was killed, and his army cut to pieces, B. C. 207. Nero, when he returned, cruelly caused his head to be flung into the camp of Hannibal, who now despaired of success,

³ Marcellus, "the sword of Rome," of which Fabius was "the shield," was eventually slain by an ambuscade in Apulia, B. C. 208.

and retired into Bruttium, where he kept on the defensive.

Scipio returned to Rome at the end of the following year, and was unanimously chosen consul, though under the legal age. In spite of the opposition of Fabius and the senate, by threatening to appeal to the people, he obtained Sicily for his province, with leave to invade Africa; which design, after spending some time in preparations, he carried into effect, B. C. 204. He was joined by *Masinissa*, a Numidian prince, who betrayed and deserted the Carthaginians; and was opposed by *Hasdrubal*, the son of Gisco, and by *Syphax*, king of the Massylians, who had married *Sophonisba*, Hasdrubal's daughter, and renounced the alliance of Rome. These he repeatedly defeated⁴; and when the unfortunate Syphax was wounded and taken prisoner, Masinissa took possession of Cirta his capital, and married Sophonisba. Scipio, however, dreading the influence of this woman, took the part of the injured husband, and ordered Masinissa to give her up; who, in his rage and despair, sent her a bowl of poison, which she drank, and thus died.

The Carthaginians, greatly alarmed, recalled Hannibal from Italy, and began to treat with Scipio. The latter, being afraid that a successor would have the glory of ending the war, granted terms, which though hard, were accepted; and a suspension of arms took place. But owing to the folly and violence of the popular party, the truce was broken; nor could Hannibal himself on his arrival bring them to reason.

After a fruitless conference with Scipio, this great man fought his last battle near Zama, B. C. 202, where, though he did all that a hero and a general could for his country,

⁴ He was guilty of atrocious treachery, when he pretended to negotiate with them during the winter, that he might send spies into their camps, which he afterwards managed to set on fire.

his army was destroyed. As the Carthaginians had no resources left, he hastened to his native city, which he had not seen since his childhood, and urged the necessity of making peace. It was agreed that they should give up their elephants, and all their ships of war but ten; that they should surrender all prisoners and deserters, and pay a heavy contribution during fifty years; and that they should recognize Masinissa, and undertake no war without leave from Rome, B. C. 201⁵.

SECTION V.

THE MACEDONIAN, THIRD PUNIC, AND NUMANTINE WARS.

B. C. 200. Renewal of the War with Philip.

197. *Battle of Cynocephalæ.*

196. Greece proclaimed free. Hannibal flees from Carthage.

191. War with Antiochus. Battle of Thermopylæ.

190. *Antiochus defeated at Magnesia.*

185. Scipio exiled.

183. Death of Scipio and Hannibal.

The power of Rome was next directed against Philip of Macedon, with whom she had lately made peace: she now attacked him on pretence of avenging the wrongs of her allies, especially the Athenians, B. C. 200. The Ætolians and Achæans took part with Rome, and the war was brought to a close by the victory gained over Philip at Cynocephalæ by *T. Quinctius Flamininus*, B. C. 197. The peace which followed released the dependent states from their subjection to Macedon; and at the Isthmian games, Flamininus proclaimed that Greece was free.

The restless Ætolians, however, were not satisfied with

⁵ Scipio was surnamed *Africānus* from this victory.

the Romans ; and they leagued themselves with *Antiochus* the Great, of Syria, the descendant of Seleucus, and the haughty sovereign of a vast but degenerate empire.

Hannibal was at that time with Antiochus. Having been made one of the *suffetes*, or chief magistrates, at Carthage, by reforming abuses and establishing a wise economy, he proved himself a true lover of his country ; in return for which, he was denounced to the Romans as a disaffected person, and forced to flee for his life, B. C. 196. Antiochus had not, however, the wisdom to follow his advice ; for he neither strengthened himself by alliances with Macedon and Egypt, nor attempted to carry the war into Italy. When at length he invaded Greece, it was only with 10,000 men ; and he acted with so little vigour, that the consul *M. Acilius Glabrio*, with the support of Philip, easily overpowered him. Completely beaten at Thermopylæ, B. C. 191, he fled back again to Asia, whither he vainly flattered himself that the Romans would not follow him.

The new consuls, *L. Scipio*, the brother, and *C. Lælius*, the friend of Africānus, were now desirous of the glory of an Asiatic war. The preference was given to L. Scipio, though he was much inferior to his colleague in talent, when Africānus offered to go out as his brother's legate. The Scipios crossed the Hellespont unopposed by Antiochus, who, after attempting to make peace, risked a battle at Magnesia, B. C. 190, and was routed with great loss, though they had but 30,000 men, while his army was three times as numerous. He was obliged to pay an immense contribution ; to give up his ships and elephants, and all his dominions in Asia west of Mount Taurus (most of which were now bestowed upon *Eumenes*, king of Pergamus, the ally of the Romans in the war) ; and to yield up Hannibal.

Hannibal for some years found a refuge in the court of *Prusias*, king of Bithynia. But he was at length tracked

out by the keen hatred of Rome, and Flamininus was sent on the disgraceful mission of demanding his surrender. Prusias had neither spirit nor power to resist; and Hannibal, who, great and good as he was, was but a heathen, finding that there was no escape, took poison and died, B. C. 183.

The same year, Scipio Africānus also died in exile. Accused by the tribunes of peculation, and of having taken bribes from Antiochus, he contemptuously tore his account-book to pieces, and when summoned before them, said that on that very day he had defeated Hannibal; after which he went up to give thanks to the gods at the Capitol, followed by the whole of the people present. But though baffled for a time, the tribunes renewed their attacks, and Scipio, too haughty to defend himself before the people, withdrew to Liternum in Campania, B. C. 185, where he died.

B. C. 179. Death of Philip.

171. War decreed against Perseus.

168. *Battle of Pydna.*

187. Paullus settles the affairs of Greece.

Philip of Macedon for some time before his death, B. C. 179, had foreseen that a struggle for existence with Rome must sooner or later take place; and he accordingly made preparations which were continued by his successor *Perseus*⁶. The latter was superior to his father in morality, and was not without talent; but he wanted courage in decisive moments, and his insatiable avarice was his ruin.

The jealousy of the Roman senate was roused against him by Eumenes, king of Pergamus, and war was declared, B. C. 171. At first, he was rather successful; and if he

⁶ His son by a concubine. His legitimate son, *Demetrius*, had been suspected by him of being in correspondence with the Romans, and was poisoned.

could but have parted with his money, and freely subsidised his barbarian allies, he would have been a dangerous enemy. But he quickly lost ground in the contest, and at last was overthrown by *L. Æmilius Paullus* at Pydna, B. C. 168. He fled with his treasures, by the care of which he was so impeded that he could not escape to his allies in Thrace; and, falling into the hands of the Romans, was led with his children before the triumphal car of his conqueror, and died a captive.

Macedonia was made free; but its power was broken by dividing it into four republics. Epirus, by the command of the ruthless *Æmilius Paullus*, became the scene of much unprovoked bloodshed; the Illyrians, who were allies of Perseus, were likewise reduced; and, in the south of Greece, the most determined patriots were accused of having been the supporters of Perseus, and either put to death, or obliged to live as hostages in Italy.

B. C. 149. *Third Punic War.* Macedon revolts.

148. *Q. Metellus* defeats *Andriscus* the Pseudo-Philip.

147. *Scipio* is sent to Africa. War with the Achæans.

146. *Destruction of Carthage.* *Corinth* burned.

Though the commercial wealth of Carthage was undiminished, her government had degenerated into a wild democracy, and her territories were constantly encroached upon by *Masinissa*, who never failed, when complained against, to have a decision from Rome in his favour⁷.

At last the Carthaginians lost patience, and were engaged in a disastrous war with their old enemy; for which they were called to account by the Romans, who had longed for

⁷ *M. Porcius Cato*, the celebrated censor, who had gone out as a commissioner to Carthage, to settle one of these disputes, became so jealous of the material prosperity of the country, that he ever afterwards ended his speeches in the senate, with "*delenda est Carthago*." The estimable *P. Scipio Nasica* upheld the opposite policy.

their destruction. At a time when they were ill prepared for resistance, war was declared against them, B. C. 149, and a large army collected in Sicily for the invasion of Africa. The unfortunate Carthaginians sent ambassadors to the senate, which treacherously promised fair terms, provided that three hundred children of the noblest families were sent as hostages for their good faith. This was done; and yet the consuls proceeded to Africa, and further demanded the surrender of all their arms and military stores. These also were yielded; and then they were told that they must abandon their city, and build another without walls ten miles from the coast.

At the tidings of this hateful perfidy, the people of Carthage, filled with rage and despair, resolved to hold out to the last. By most wonderful exertions, their arsenals were again replenished, and the city was not only defended with success, but their armies under *Hasdrubal* and *Hamilcar Phamæas* (a man who ended a brilliant career by turning traitor), were repeatedly victorious. A great change, however, took place, when *P. Cornelius Scipio* (son of *Æmilius Paullus*, but adopted by the son of the great *Africānus*), was chosen consul, and sent to command in Africa. He restored the discipline of the army, which had become exceedingly lax; he every where defeated the enemy's troops; and, by blocking up the entrance of the harbour at Carthage with a vast mole, reduced the city to great distress. The Carthaginians dug another passage out into the sea; and a fleet which they had secretly built, issued forth, to the astonishment of the Romans, who, if attacked, would probably have been beaten. But the favourable opportunity was lost.

In the spring, B. C. 146, Scipio, having gained possession of the port and the adjacent part of the town, fought his way with very great difficulty through the streets to the *Byrsa* or citadel. After six days of carnage and devasta-

tion, the Byrsa surrendered, and fifty thousand persons, who had taken refuge there, were made slaves. Hasdrubal and some Roman deserters still defended the temple of Æsculapius, which was situated at the highest point of the citadel; and at last, in despair, they set fire to the building, and all perished, except Hasdrubal, who made his escape, and begged his life of Scipio⁸. Carthage was razed to the ground: part of her territory was given to the Numidians⁹, and the rest formed into the province of Africa¹.

Meanwhile, Macedonia, which had revolted in favour of one *Andriscus*, who gave himself out to be the son of *Perseus*, was also reduced into a province by the arms of *Q. Cæcilius Metellus*. This general and *C. Mummius* had likewise rapid success against the Achæans, whom the insolence of Rome had provoked to hostility. Corinth was taken and burned by Mummius, B. C. 146, and Greece, under the name of Achaia, became a Roman province².

B. C. 148. Successes of Viriathus.

140. Murder of Viriathus.

134. Scipio sent to Spain. Servile War in Sicily.

133. *Fall of Numantia*.

132. End of the Servile War in Sicily.

From the time of the second Punic War, the influence of Rome had gradually increased in Spain, owing chiefly to the talent and integrity of men like *M. Porcius Cato*,—a distinguished Roman of the old school, surnamed the Cen-

⁸ For this his wife reviled him from the battlements of the burning temple, after which she threw herself with her children into the flames.

⁹ Masinissa was now dead, and his sons had succeeded to his power.

¹ Scipio was now called *Africānus*.

² Metellus was called *Macedonicus*, and Mummius *Achaicus*, from these victories.

sor, from the zeal with which, when in office, he had opposed the corruptions of the times,—*Tib. Sempronius Gracchus*, and *M. Claudius Marcellus*. Some of the Roman generals, however, were persons of a very different stamp, and behaved with the most disgusting cruelty and treachery; particularly towards the lawless Lusitanians. These last found a leader in *Viriāthus*, who for some years set the Romans at defiance, until they bribed some of his followers to assassinate him, B. C. 140.

The most flagrant incapacity and ill faith also characterized the war with Numantia. The destroyer of Carthage, Scipio Africānus the younger, who was sent into Spain to retrieve the reputation of Rome, eventually reduced the place by famine, B. C. 133. He sternly refused to grant any terms to its brave inhabitants, and most of them put an end to their lives before the town surrendered. The rest were sold for slaves.

Yet, at this very time, the danger which necessarily attended the system of employing large bodies of captive slaves, was shown in Sicily, where a servile war broke out which was not put down without great difficulty and much bloodshed, B. C. 132.

SECTION VI.

FROM THE TIMES OF THE GRACCHI TO THE END OF THE
SOCIAL WAR.

- B. C. 133. *Agrarian Law and Murder of Tib. Gracchus.*
- 129. *Death of the Younger Scipio.*
- 123. *First Tribune and Laws of C. Gracchus.*
- 121. *Death of Caius Gracchus.*

Although Rome was still increasing in power, corruption was rapidly extending through every department of the

administration. The provinces were governed by proconsuls and proprætors³, men who endeavoured during their short period of office, by every sort of extortion, to repay themselves the sums of money which had been spent on their elections; to make their own fortunes; to enrich a number of friends, kinsmen, and followers; and even to provide themselves with money to bribe the judges, and to pay the fines imposed upon them, should they ever be prosecuted at Rome for their misconduct.

The system of taxation was another hateful grievance. The revenues were farmed by companies of knights⁴, to which order the monied men chiefly belonged; and these, having power and influence on their side, were able to overcharge the unfortunate provincials, to whom in seasons of distress they would lend money at a ruinous rate of interest.

Nor were things better at home⁵. The long and distant wars had taken away many men from their little farms; and these either settled abroad when discharged, or went to live at Rome, and swelled the increasing crowd of needy citizens who were in the habit of selling their votes for bread.

³ These had been consuls and prætors at Rome, and their power was continued in their provinces, to which they were commonly appointed for a year.

⁴ They were called *publicans*, a name likewise given in the provinces to their servants, a worthless class of men who committed extortion on their own account, as well as for their masters.

⁵ The *nobles* were not only enriched at the expense of the provinces, but they had made the Licinian law a dead letter, and had gotten possession of the public land, which they cultivated by means of ill-fed and ill-treated slaves. On the other hand, the free yeomanry were fast diminishing.

[A *nobleman* at Rome was the descendant of one who had borne a *curule* office, that is to say, of consular and prætorian persons. Noble families kept the images of their ancestors from the time that they were *ennobled*, and paraded them at funerals.]

It was to lessen these last evils that *Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus*,—the son of the Gracchus who was so highly esteemed in Spain (in which country he had also shown himself worthy of his father), and of *Cornelia*, the daughter of the first *Africānus*,—when he became tribune of the people, B. C. 133, brought in an agrarian law which forbade any one to have more than five hundred *jugera* of the public land for his own share, and two hundred and fifty for each of his sons. All the rest, and all future acquisitions, were to be divided among the poorer citizens; and triumvirs were to be appointed for that purpose⁶.

The struggle was not now between Patrician and Plebeian,—most of the Patrician families were now extinct,—but between rich and poor; and it was fiercely carried on. *Octavius*, one of the tribunes, interposed his veto whenever the law was read; the people lost patience, and Gracchus, after trying every means to induce his colleague to desist, adopted the strong measure of having him deposed by the assembly of the people. The law was now passed⁷.

The rich, however, were bent on vengeance. They accused him of aiming at royalty; and finding that, to secure himself against their violence, he was seeking, contrary to the custom which had prevailed of late, to be continued as tribune, they threw every obstacle in his way, and on the second day of the election raised a tumult in the assembly, then held in front of the Capitol. *Scipio Nasica* now declared in the senate that the commonwealth was in

⁶ The law was hard on those who had acquired such land by fair purchase, or who had built upon it, as they had no compensation.

⁷ The tidings arrived that *Attalus III.*, the worthless king of Pergamus, had bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans, who had, however, to fight for the inheritance. Gracchus proposed that his treasure should be employed in enabling the poor to stock the new farms.

danger ; and, followed by a number of his party, he went up to the Capitol. In the commotion which ensued, Gracchus was killed : his friends were also overpowered, and cruelly persecuted.

Scipio Africānus, though the husband of his sister, being an enemy of all change, approved of his death, and when he returned from Spain, tried to impede his laws by taking the part of the Italian allies, who had been allowed to occupy portions of the public land. The people were greatly excited against him ; and when he was found dead in his bed the very morning that he intended to address them, B. C. 129, many suspected that he had been murdered.

For some time, *Caius Gracchus*, the younger brother of Tiberius, and, like him, a man of upright life and pure intentions, but of much greater talent as an orator, gave little trouble to the opposite party. But when they wanted to make him continue in Sardinia, where he was quæstor, by prolonging the command of the proconsul under whom he served ; he returned home without leave, stood for the tribuneship, and was elected, B. C. 123.

In the first tribunate, he enforced his brother's laws ; he forbade the enlistment of persons under the age of seventeen, and the deducting of the equipments of the soldier from his pay ; he caused fine roads to be made throughout Italy ; and he employed the wealth of Attalus in providing corn at a low rate for the pauper citizens.

When re-elected, he abolished the old popular courts as corrupt, and caused the judges to be chosen from among the knights. Before these, and not before senators as formerly, men accused of extortion in the provinces were to be tried⁹. He founded several colonies ; one

⁹ This proved a failure. *The knights as publicans and money-lenders had as much inducement to favour the oppression of the provinces as the senators themselves.

at Carthage, which he rebuilt. He reformed the system of assigning the provinces, and proposed to put new blood into the decrepid body of the state by giving the full citizenship to the Latins, and the privileges of the Latins to the Italian allies.

This praiseworthy plan was offensive to the city populace, whom the senate cunningly gained over by employing the tribune *M. Livius Drusus* to outbid Gracchus in proposing popular measures. When Gracchus again stood for the tribunate, he failed; and moreover his deadly enemy, *L. Opimius*, was made consul, who soon began to attack his legislation. It so happened, that as Opimius was sacrificing at the time that an assembly of the people was held at the Capitol, his lictor, while carrying away the entrails, called out to the friends of Gracchus, "Make way, ye bad citizens, for the good ones!" a piece of insolence which cost him his life. This rash act was instantly taken advantage of by Opimius. The body of the lictor was carried into the forum; and a decree was passed by the senate, that the consuls should provide for the public safety¹.

The next morning, Opimius overpowered the adherents of Gracchus, who, with his high-spirited friend *Fulvius Flaccus*, had taken refuge in the Aventine². Fulvius was slain; and Gracchus finding that he could not escape, ordered his slave to kill him, B. C. 121. Opimius having offered the weight of their heads in gold, the brain of Gracchus was taken out, and the cavity filled with lead. More than 3000 persons were put to death by Opimius; and before many years had passed, the Sempronian laws became a dead letter.

¹ *Dent operam consules, ne quid detrimenti respublica capiat.*

² One of the hills in Rome, on which none but Plebeians lived.

THE JUGURTHINE WAR.

- B.C. 118. Death of Micipsa.
- 117. The Romans reinstate Adherbal.
- 112. Adherbal put to death.
- 111. War with Jugurtha. Calpurnius Bestia is bribed to make peace.
- 110. Murder of Massiva. Jugurtha sent out of Rome.
- 107. Marius supersedes Metellus.
- 106. Jugurtha betrayed to Sylla.
- 104. *Death of Jugurtha.*

Not long after the fall of the Gracchi, *Micipsa*, the last surviving son of Masinissa, died B.C. 118, leaving his kingdom to his two sons *Adherbal* and *Hiempsal*, and to his illegitimate nephew *Jugurtha*³. *Jugurtha*, who was a bold bad man, murdered *Hiempsal*, and drove *Adherbal* out of Numidia. *Adherbal* was reinstated by the Roman senate; but the money of *Jugurtha* procured for him impunity, and the best half of the kingdom. On this occasion, *Opimius*, who went out as a commissioner to make the division, again became disgracefully notorious.

Five years after this arrangement, B.C. 112, *Adherbal* was besieged in *Cirta*, his capital, by *Jugurtha*; forced to surrender; and put to death. The Romans, indignant that their intervention had been disregarded, declared war; and *L. Calpurnius Piso Bestia* invaded Numidia, whom *Jugurtha* easily bribed to make peace.

This iniquitous affair was exposed by the tribune *C. Memmius*, who succeeded in having *Jugurtha* brought to Rome under a safe conduct to give evidence. But *C. Bæbius*, another tribune, was gained over, and *Jugurtha* was forbidden to say anything. Finding that his cousin *Massiva* was applying for his kingdom, *Jugurtha* caused

³ *Micipsa* was at one time jealous of *Jugurtha*, and to get rid of him, he sent him to Spain, where he served against Numantia, and gained the favour of Scipio.

him to be assassinated ; on which he was ordered to leave Italy, B. C. 110. When going out of Rome, he is said to have exclaimed, that the venal city would soon perish, if it could but find a purchaser.

The war was renewed ; but it was ill managed at first, and a Roman army surrendered to Jugurtha, and passed under the yoke. Discipline was, however, restored by *C. Cæcilius Metellus*, a nobleman of high character, but of a cold proud disposition, who was everywhere successful against Jugurtha, and reduced him to great distress⁴. Metellus found a rival in his own legate, *C. Marius*, a man of low birth, and rude manners, who by his genius and bravery had raised himself from the ranks to high command. To his great disgust, Marius was elected consul, and superseded him in his province, B. C. 107, where he carried on the war with yet greater vigour. Jugurtha was driven to take refuge with *Bocchus*, king of the Gætulians, who was persuaded by *L. Cornelius Sylla*⁵, the quæstor of Marius, to betray him, B. C. 106. When Marius returned home, Jan. 104, Jugurtha adorned his triumph, and afterwards was thrown into a dungeon, where he died of hunger.

THE TEUTONIC AND CIMBRIC WAR.

B. C. 113. The Cimbri invade Gaul.

104. The Cimbri march into Spain.

102. Battle of Aquæ Sextiæ.

101. *Battle of Vercellæ*.

100. Metellus banished. Death of Saturninus.

99. Return of Metellus.

Marius had been again raised to the consulship, B. C. 104, to which he was re-elected during five successive years ; it

⁴ He at one time gave up a large sum of money, his elephants, and part of his horses and arms, intending to surrender ; but after having done this, his heart failed him.

⁵ More correctly, *Sulla*.

being felt that he was the only man capable of repelling the Cimbri and Teutones ⁶, who had overpowered the Romans in Gaul, and were now threatening the very existence of their empire.

Fortunately for Rome, the Cimbri invaded Spain, and Marius was able to spend two years in forming an army. The free peasantry of Rome being almost extinct, he was obliged to take recruits from the dregs of the populace, whom he trained into soldiers by the severity of an iron discipline, and by inuring them to hardship and fatigue. At length, when the barbarians were about to burst upon Italy, Marius marched into Gaul, and destroyed the Teutones at Aquæ Sextiæ, B. C. 102; and the following year, he went to the aid of his late colleague, *Q. Lutatius Catulus*, who had retreated before the Cimbri, abandoning the plain of the Po. Another great victory over these barbarians at Vercellæ, completed the deliverance of Italy.

A period of much excitement now followed; Marius having connected himself with two villains, *L. Apuleius Saturninus* and *C. Servilius Glaucia*, against whose projects Metellus ⁷ made a noble stand, and withdrew into exile rather than yield to them. Saturninus, when re-elected tribune, had murdered *Nonius* the rival candidate, and Glaucia, who now stood for the consulship, caused his opponent, *C. Memmius*, to be beaten to death. This atrocity roused the senate and people, and Marius as consul was obliged to take up arms against his friends. They had occupied the Capitol; but as the supply of water was cut off, they soon surrendered, and fell victims to the rage of the populace, B. C. 100. Metellus was now recalled by all parties.

⁶ The Cimbri or Cymri, the parent stock of the Welsh and Picts, seem to have come from the Cimbric Chersonese. The Teutones were Germans.

⁷ The title of *Numidicus* had been given him.

THE SOCIAL WAR.

- B. C. 91. The Laws and Death of Drusus.
90. *The Social War begins.* The Lex Julia.
89. The franchise given to the Italian allies.
88. End of the Social or Marsic War.

The next disputes were stirred by the tribune *M. Livius Drusus*^{*}, a young man of extraordinary talent, who attempted to reform the administration of justice by making the judges no longer from the knights but from the senate, to which three hundred knights were to be joined; and also to strengthen the state by admitting the Italians to the citizenship, B. C. 91. He was cut short in his career by the knife of an unknown assassin, and the knights began a system of persecution against all who had supported him.

The discontent of the Italians now broke out into open warfare, B. C. 90. The Marsians, Samnites, and other kindred races, established their own senate and consuls at Corfinium, and at first had the advantage in the struggle. But the consul *L. Julius Cæsar* wisely secured the Latins by giving them the full citizenship; and the same privileges were extended to the Tuscans and Umbrians. When the tide of success turned in favour of Rome, and some of the Italians began to waver, the franchise was offered to those who would lay down their arms; so that at the end of two years, the Samnites and Lucanians alone made any resistance. Thus ended the Social, Marsic, or Italian War, which is said to have cost 300,000 lives.

^{*} Son of the Drusus who opposed C. Gracchus.

SECTION VII.

FROM THE CONTEST OF SYLLA AND MARIUS TO THE END
OF THE MITHRIDATIC WARS.

- B. C. 88. *Mithridātes massacres the Romans. Sylla drives out Marius.*
 87. *Marius and Cinna supreme at Rome. Siege of Athens.*
 86. Death of Marius. Battles of Chæronēa and Orchomenus.
 —Flaccus goes to Asia.
 84. Death of Cinna. Sylla makes peace. Fimbria kills himself.

Sylla, during the late war, had by his victories somewhat eclipsed the fame of Marius his old commander ; and when he was raised to the consulship, the senate gave him the conduct of the war against *Mithridātes*. The jealousy of Marius was aroused ; and he got his friend, the tribune *P. Sulpicius Rufus*, to pass a law by which it was transferred to himself. On this, Sylla appealed to his army at Nola, and marching to Rome, overpowered Marius and his faction, and drove them into exile, B. C. 88. He behaved with great moderation, allowing *L. Cornelius Cinna*, a leader of the opposite party, to be elected consul ; and soon afterwards took his departure from Italy.

Marius had escaped with difficulty to Africa⁹, whence he was recalled by Cinna, who, driven out of Rome for attempting to swamp the old tribes, the strongholds of the

⁹ He underwent great danger and suffering in his flight. He was dragged out of the marshes near Minturnæ by his pursuers, and the magistrates sent a Gaul into the prison to despatch him. But Marius so intimidated the barbarian with his look, asking him how he dared to kill Caius Marius, that he shrank away. Marius was set free ; and he went on to Carthage, where in answer to the prætor's order to depart, he said to the envoy, "Tell him that thou hast seen Marius sitting an exile among the ruins of Carthage."

opposite party, by enrolling the new citizens among them, like Sylla had advanced against the city with an army. It was forced to surrender at discretion, B. C. 87; the consul *Octavius* was murdered; and Marius wreaked his vengeance on the friends of Sylla by a system of wholesale massacre. The next year, this great, but brutal man, died in the beginning of his seventh consulship. As for Cinna, when at length he was about to cross over into Greece to oppose Sylla, he perished in a mutiny of his troops, B. C. 84.

Had Sylla been a common man, he would have listened to the entreaties of his friends, and returned to Italy. But he saw the importance of the war with Mithridātes, and boldly went on with it.

Mithridātes, the powerful king of Pontus, had defeated *Nicomēdes* of Bithynia, whom the Romans had instigated to attack him, and the forces, chiefly Asiatic, which their generals had led against him; and had become master of Asia Minor. He followed up the blow, B. C. 88, by causing a massacre of all the Romans and Italians in the Greek towns on the coast; and though he failed against Rhodes, he was strengthened by the accession of the Bœotians, Athenians, and the people of the south of Greece.

Sylla laid siege to Athens and the Piræus. He at length stormed the city, slaughtered numbers of the inhabitants, and took and burned the Piræus; after which, he followed *Archelāus*, the general of Mithridātes, into Bœotia, and twice destroyed his army at Chæronēa and Orchomenus, B. C. 86. Both parties were now anxious to make peace; and after some negotiation, it was agreed that Mithridātes should pay a large contribution, and restore all his conquests in Asia, B. C. 84. Sylla then marched to Thyatira against *C. Flavius Fimbria*, who was at the head of an army which the Marian party had sent out with their consul, *L. Valerius Flaccus*, by whom Sylla was to be

superseded, but whom Fimbria had caused to be murdered in a mutiny. Fimbria, finding that his troops were not to be trusted, died by his own hand.

B.C. 83. Return of Sylla. Sertorius flees to Spain.

82. Defeat of Pontius. *Proscriptions and Dictatorship of Sylla.*

79. Sylla lays down the Dictatorship. Metellus sent to Spain.

78. *Death of Sylla.* Lepidus attacks his laws.

77. Catulus defeats Lepidus. Pompey goes to Spain.

72. Murder of Sertorius. Death of Perpenna.

After settling affairs in Asia and Greece, Sylla returned to Italy with about 40,000 men, B. C. 83, and was joined by young *Cn. Pompeius*, better known as Pompey the Great, and *Q. Metellus Pius*, the son of Numidicus, who had both of them raised troops to support the aristocratic cause. The government had nearly 200,000 men at command; but it was tyrannical and unpopular, and its generals, in most cases, were deserted by their soldiers and easily overcome. There was, however, a deadly struggle, when the Samnites and Lucanians, under *Pontius Telesinus*, having failed in relieving Præneste, whither the younger *Marius* had taken refuge¹, marched to Rome, their leader crying out, "that there never would be wanting wolves to ravage Italy, if the wood which harboured them was not cut down." Sylla, having gained a hard fought and bloody victory, now took a dreadful vengeance upon his foes. Proscription lists, containing hundreds of their names, were hung up in the forum; their goods were confiscated; a price was set upon their heads; and it was death to befriend them, B. C. 82.

He also caused himself to be made dictator for an indefinite period, and undertook the vain task of restoring the ancient constitution by a series of laws. He deprived the tribunes of the power of proposing measures, and made

¹ He afterwards put an end to himself.

them incapable of being chosen to higher offices. By enrolling a number of emancipated slaves in the tribes, and establishing twenty-three legions in military colonies, he kept both Rome and Italy under control. He had then the boldness to resign the dictatorship, and to retire into private life. The following year, he died of a loathsome disease, covered with vermin and ulcers, B. C. 78, and was honoured by his party with a magnificent funeral².

Scarcely was Sylla dead, than the consul *M. Æmilius Lepidus* tried to repeal his laws. But the power of the dominant party was too well established; and Lepidus, though he eventually took up arms, was unable to keep his ground against his honest and resolute colleague, *Q. Lutatius Catulus*. In Spain only had the Marian party any strength. There the genius and noble qualities of the celebrated *Q. Sertorius* had won the affection of the natives, and Metellus Pius and Pompey, who were successively sent to oppose him, were repeatedly foiled. But he was murdered, B. C. 72, by *Perpenna*, one of his adherents, who had hoped to succeed him, but found himself unable to stand against Pompey and Metellus, and was put to death.

THE WAR OF SPARTACUS, AND THE PIRATIC WAR.

B. C. 73. The War of the Gladiators begins.

71. Death of Spartacus.

70. Pompey restores the power of the tribunes.

67. The Gabinian Law; Pompey subdues the pirates.

The south of Italy, which had greatly suffered in the times of Sylla, was for three years wasted by the desperate

² The Cornelian *gens* used to bury their dead. Sylla ordered his body to be burned after the newer fashion, lest his remains should afterwards be dug up and insulted.

bands of gladiators³, who had broken out of the training schools at Capua, and being joined by numbers of slaves, and commanded by the Thracian *Spartacus*, at one time defeated both consuls, and threatened the existence of Rome itself. But they were at last destroyed by *M. Licinius Crassus*, the prætor, in a great battle in which *Spartacus* bravely fought and fell, B. C. 71.

Pompey and Crassus, whose chief influence was owing to his immense wealth, were now chosen consuls. Pompey, to please the people, restored to the tribunes the power of which Sylla had deprived them. The two consuls were jealous of each other; but, when they went out of office, they were reconciled by the people.

At this time, the reduction of the naval power of the Rhodians had favoured the increase of piracy, and the Cilicians not only plundered the coasts of Italy, but by intercepting the corn-fleets, brought Rome to the verge of famine. At length the tribune *A. Gabinius* succeeded, in spite of the opposition of the aristocratic party, in passing a law which gave Pompey the management of the war against the pirates, and invested him with most extraordinary powers, B. C. 67. Pompey acted with such vigour, that in less than fifty days the pirates were completely subdued.

THE MITHRIDATIC WAR.

B. C. 74. The last Mithridatic War.

68. Lucullus invades Armenia.

67. Mutiny of Lucullus' army. Defeat of Triarius.

66. The Manilian Law; Pompey goes to Asia.

³ Gladiators, or sword-players, were strong slaves trained to fight and destroy each other at public festivals for the amusement of the barbarous spectators.

63. *Death of Mithridātes.* Pompey takes Jerusalem.

62. Return of Pompey.

With the exception of a short defensive war, for which the Romans were to blame, Mithridātes, though preparing for a future struggle, had remained quiet for some years. But in consequence of his having entered into negotiations with Sertorius, the war again broke out, B. C. 74. At first, he was successful; but on the arrival of *L. Licinius Lucullus* in Asia, he was driven back with loss into his own country. There he was unable to withstand the energy and skill of the Roman general; and he was forced to go and seek refuge in Armenia with *Tigrānes*, his son-in-law. Three years later, Lucullus also invaded Armenia, where, after a succession of brilliant victories, his career was suddenly checked by a mutiny of his troops, which was instigated by his own brother-in-law, the worthless *P. Clodius*⁴, B. C. 67. The strictness of his discipline, and the manner in which he enriched himself with the spoils of the war, had caused deep discontent. Mithridātes now ventured to return to Pontus, and having defeated the legate, *C. Valerius Triarius*, quickly recovered his dominions. Lucullus had given great offence at Rome by his justice and kindness to the people of Asia Minor⁵, and therefore his enemies deprived him of his command.

The following year, the tribune *C. Manilius* carried a bill which extended the powers conferred on Pompey by the Gabinian law, and gave him the chief command in Asia. Pompey soon gained a decisive victory over Mithridātes, who fled through Colchis to the Cimmerian Bosphorus, where he formed a daring plan of uniting the barbarous

⁴ Clodius was of the Claudian family, and was descended from Appius Claudius the decemvir.

⁵ They had been fined 20,000 talents by Sylla, a sum raised, by the compound interest of the money which they had been forced to borrow of the Roman knights, to 120,000 talents.

nations, and descending into Italy at their head. But his followers heard it with dismay; and a rebellion broke out, in which his own son *Pharnāces* took a leading part. Mithridātes put an end to his own life; Pharnāces submitted to Pompey, and was allowed to retain the Bosphorus, B. C. 63.

Pompey had by this time humbled Tigrānes, and conquered Syria. He also entered Judæa in support of *Hircānus*, whose claims to the high-priesthood were disputed by his brother *Aristobūlus*, and took Jerusalem, after a siege of three months, by attacking it on the Sabbath. Great fears were now entertained, that when he returned home, he would make himself absolute; but they were dissipated on his landing in Italy, B. C. 62, as he immediately disbanded his army. The soldiers were required only to attend his triumph, which was the grandest ever yet known.

CATILINE'S CONSPIRACY.

B. C. 63. *Catiline's Conspiracy detected.*

62. Death of Catiline. Turbulence of Metellus Nepos.

61. Trial of Clodius.

While Pompey was in Asia, a dangerous crisis had taken place at home.

The corrupt and troubled state of Rome of late years had given rise to a class of desperate men, who had nothing to lose, and every thing to gain in a civil war. They found a daring and unscrupulous leader in the infamous *Catiline*⁶ (L. Sergius Catilina), who organised a fearful conspiracy, which would have placed Rome at their mercy, and made every thing a prey to fire and sword⁷.

⁶ He had murdered his own brother, and was suspected of having taken the life of his own son.

⁷ Crassus is suspected of having been drawn into some connexion with Catiline. The accusation brought against Caesar is more doubtful.

Catiline now stood for the consulship, B. C. 64; but the nobles and men of property had taken the alarm, and they procured the election of his opponent, *M. Tullius Cicero*, the great master of Roman eloquence⁸. The next year, he was again foiled; and finding that Cicero, whom he had in vain attempted to assassinate, was denouncing him in the senate, he boldly went thither to confront him. But he was overpowered by the consul's indignant invectives; and he rushed out in a fury, and repaired to Etruria, where a number of his followers were already in arms.

His chief accomplices, however, some of whom, like *P. Cornelius Lentulus Sura* and *C. Cornelius Cethegus*, were men of weight, remained at Rome with the intention of raising the populace and setting fire to the city. But they were betrayed by some ambassadors from the Allobroges⁹ with whom they had tampered: and after a discussion in the senate, in which *C. Julius Cæsar*, the prætor elect (a young man of family, whose aunt Marius had married, but deeply in debt, which had been much increased by the immense bribes which he paid when chosen chief pontiff by the people), spoke in favour of lenient measures, but was answered by *M. Porcius Cato*, an honest but impracticable statesman; Cicero caused Lentulus, Cethegus, and two others, to be strangled in prison.

C. Antonius, Cicero's colleague, being sent against Catiline, whom he was suspected of favouring, gave the command to *M. Petreius*. Catiline, finding that retreat was impossible, resolved to die bravely since he could not

⁸ Though of good family at Arpinum, the native town of Marius, he was at Rome a "*novus homo*." At another time, aristocratic pride would have opposed his election.

⁹ These ambassadors were instructed by Cicero to get written credentials from the conspirators. It was arranged that they should be stopped when leaving Rome, and thus the government were furnished with written proofs against Lentulus and his associates.

conquer ; and after a bloody conflict, he and his followers were slain to a man, B. C. 62.

Cicero by saving his country excited against himself the malice of the ill-disposed. He was particularly assailed by the tribune, *Q. Metellus Nepos*, who, but for the firmness of Cato, would have carried a law by violence to authorize the return of Pompey with his army to put an end to what he called the tyranny of Cicero. But a worse enemy was raised up in the profligate Clodius, whom Cicero mortally offended by bearing witness against him at the time of his disgraceful trial¹.

SECTION VIII.

FROM THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE TO THE DEATH OF CÆSAR.

B. C. 60. Cæsar returns from Spain. *First Triumvirate.*

69. Agrarian Law ; Bibulus insulted.

58. Clodius tribune ; Cicero exiled. Gallic Wars of Cæsar.

56. Meeting at Luca. Ahenobarbus attacked.

55. Second Consulship of Pompey and Crassus.

53. Death of Crassus.

52. Death of Clodius. Pompey sole consul ; Milo exiled.

Cæsar in the year 60 B.C. returned from Spain, and claimed a triumph for his success against the Lusitanians ; which however he gave up, as the senate would not allow him to enter the city beforehand to canvass for the consul-

¹ At the close of the year 62, when the rites of the *Bona Dea*, at which no man was allowed to be present, were celebrated at Cæsar's house, Clodius, who was in love with *Pompeia*, Cæsar's wife, smuggled himself in disguised as a woman. He was detected and brought to trial ; but he bribed the judges, and was acquitted. Cæsar took his part, as he thought him a convenient ally ; though he divorced *Pompeia*, saying that Cæsar's wife ought to be free from suspicion.

ship. Having carried his election, his next plan was to destroy the power of the aristocratical party by persuading Pompey and Crassus (whose enormous wealth gave him a certain weight) to form with him a partnership, or triumvirate. The three were to support each other, and to oppose whatever any one of them should object to.

He then procured for Pompey what he had hitherto failed in obtaining, namely, land for his soldiers, and the confirmation of his acts in Asia². When he brought in the Agrarian law, his colleague, *M. Calpurnius Bibulus*, who was in the interest of the nobles, supported by three of the tribunes, opposed it, and even declared all the remaining days of the year to be *nefasti*³. But when Bibulus attempted to hinder the people from passing the law, he was thrown down; and treated with such insult, that he shut himself up in his house during all the rest of his consulship, vainly protesting against every thing that was done.

Cæsar gained over the knights to his party by granting them, when they had taken a disadvantageous lease of the taxes, that reduction, which, owing to the obstinacy of Cato, the senate had refused. Cicero, however, was not to be gained over; and in revenge the triumvirs enabled his enemy, Clodius, to become a Plebeian by adoption, and to obtain the tribuneship. Cæsar likewise procured for himself the province of Gaul, both Transalpine and Cisalpine, for five years; and he gave his daughter *Julia* in marriage to Pompey.

Clodius was not long in office before he brought in a bill, which outlawed by interdiction from fire and water, any one who had put a citizen to death without the sanction of the people. This was directed against Cicero; who,

² This had been strenuously opposed by Lucullus, who ordinarily did not interfere much with politics, but gave himself up to luxurious ease and enjoyment.

³ Or holidays, on which no business could be done.

finding it impossible to withstand the violence and intimidation employed against him by his foes, became a proscribed exile, B. C. 58. He retired to Greece, where he bore his adversity with little firmness. He was, however, recalled the very next year; even Pompey, who had now found reason to dread the insolence of Clodius, exerting himself on his behalf.

Towards the end of the year 56 B. C., the triumvirs and their friends met at Luca, which was within Cæsar's province; and it was agreed that Pompey and Crassus should stand for the consulship, and that they should obtain for Cæsar the renewal of his command for five years. These carried their election, driving their only opponent *L. Domitius Ahenobarbus* out of the field, after he had been attacked when canvassing, some of his friends being wounded and his servant killed. They also secured for themselves provinces to be held five years. Pompey had the Spains, which he was allowed to govern by his lieutenants; and Syria was chosen by Crassus, who had long coveted the plunder to be acquired in a Parthian war.

This war was fatal to Crassus. When he crossed the Euphrâtes, B. C. 53, he was led by the treachery of *Agbar*, an Arab chief, into the plains beyond, which were favourable to the Parthians, whose great strength lay in the numbers of their irregular cavalry. There he was suddenly assailed by the enemy; and from henceforth their arrows gave his infantry no respite. After losing his son and many of his bravest men, he commenced a disastrous retreat which ended in his being lured into a conference with the barbarians and murdered⁴. His death destroyed the balance of the triumvirate; and as Cæsar's daughter,

⁴ *L. Cassius Longinus*, who afterwards became so notorious as the murderer of Cæsar, made his escape at the time of the retreat, and bravely defended Syria against the Parthians.

Julia, also died about this time, the only bond of union between the two survivors was at an end.

The next year was remarkable for the murder of Clodius by *T. Annius Milo*, when with their armed followers they had met by accident on the road to Rome. Party at that time ran high: Clodius had been seeking to be elected prætor, and Milo consul, both of them having recourse to the most unscrupulous means; and this event caused such tumult and anarchy in the city, that, by the advice of Bibulus, Pompey was made sole consul to restore order. Milo was brought to trial, and being convicted, went into exile ⁵.

THE CIVIL WARS, AND THE DICTATORSHIP OF CÆSAR.

- B. C. 49. Cæsar crosses the Rubicon. Spain reduced.
- 48. Cæsar is repulsed at Dyrrachium. *Battle of Pharsalia*.
Death of Pompey. Alexandrine War.
- 47. Cleopatra queen of Egypt. Defeat of Pharnâces.
Mutiny of the Tenth Legion.
- 46. Battle of Thapsus. Death of Cato. Reform of the
Calendar.
- 45. Battle of Munda. Cæsar dictator for life.
- 44. *Death of Cæsar*.

During his residence in Gaul, Cæsar engaged in a series of wars with the natives, and extended the dominion of Rome over the whole country. Money and a well-trained army were now at his command: but the time of his government was fast drawing to a close; and as he dreaded the vengeance of Cato and the jealousy of Pompey, he felt that he could not be safe for a moment, if ever he became a private citizen.

He therefore wished to be allowed to return to Rome,

⁵ Cicero, who pleaded for him, was intimidated by the yells of the mob, and the presence of the armed men whom Pompey had placed to keep order.

and to stand for the consulship, without first laying down his command. Pompey would not give his consent, and was supported by the consuls and the rest of his faction in the senate, but met with determined opposition from *C. Scribonius Curio*, the tribune, an able but worthless man, whom Cæsar had bought by paying his debts. Curio said that if Cæsar was to disarm, Pompey should do the same; and in the beginning of the year 49 B. C. he brought a letter from Cæsar in which this plan was proposed, and a civil war was threatened in case of its rejection. The senate decreed that unless Cæsar disbanded his army, he should be declared a public enemy. *M. Antonius* (Mark Antony), and another tribune, put their veto to this resolution. For this they were menaced by the consuls; and at last they left Rome disguised as slaves, and went to seek refuge in the camp of Cæsar.

Cæsar, with part of his troops, was already on his march. When he reached the bridge over the Rubicon, which divided Cisalpine Gaul from Italy, he could not help pausing to reconsider the step which he was about to take. But he soon made up his mind; and crying out, "The die is cast," he crossed the boundary. It was now seen how little attachment was felt by the people for a worn-out constitution; and Pompey, to his dismay, found himself obliged to abandon Italy, and to retire into Greece. As Cæsar had no ships, he could not follow him: so he went to Rome, and seized upon the treasury⁶; after which he proceeded to Spain, where Pompey had a veteran army. Two of the legates, *Afranius* and *Petreius*, advanced to oppose him; but they were foiled by his military skill, and still more by his generous moderation, which in spite of their efforts disarmed all opposition.

⁶ *L. Metellus*, the tribune, attempted to prevent him. But Cæsar was not a man to stand upon ceremony on such an occasion, and he *threatened at once to kill the tribune if he did not desist.*

Spain being reduced, Cæsar's attention was again turned to *Pompey*, who had collected the senators of his party at Thessalonica, and, with the aid of his allies in the east, was well provided with men, money, ships, and stores. Though he had only transports for part of his army, and Pompey's fleet was on the look out to intercept him, he boldly crossed over into Epīrus, B. C. 48, where, however, he had some months to wait before he was joined by the rest of his troops under Antony⁷. He attempted to besiege Pompey in his camp near Dyrrachium; but while his enemy was well supplied by sea, his own men were distressed for food. At last, Pompey forced his lines, and defeated him.

After this check, Cæsar daringly moved through the mountain passes into Thessaly, a rich but unfriendly country, closely pursued by Pompey. The latter, when both armies encamped on the plain of Pharsālus, B. C. 48, was at the head of 40,500 men, while the force of Cæsar did not amount to half that number, but it consisted of better soldiers. Pompey, however, had far more resources than his rival, and he was inclined to wear him out by procrastination: yet he weakly risked a battle at Pharsalia, being unable to withstand the clamour of his followers, who thought themselves so sure of victory, that they actually quarrelled about the patronage of which they soon hoped to have the disposal, and prepared a feast to celebrate it. Cæsar destroyed Pompey's left wing; and when the rest of the army retreated, he made his victory complete by unexpectedly storming the enemy's camp.

Pompey fled to Egypt, where the young king *Ptolemy*

⁷ Cæsar, in his anxiety to bring over these troops, is said to have embarked for Italy in a fishing-boat, disguised as a slave. A storm forced the fishermen to put back, though they tried their utmost after he had made himself known to them, declaring that they carried Cæsar and his fortune.

(whose father had been restored by his influence to the throne, when expelled by his subjects) was at war with his sister and colleague *Cleopatra*. On his arrival off Pelusium, the Egyptian government, by the advice of a Roman named *Septimius*, sent out a boat to take him ashore; and before he landed, he was murdered. His head was cut off, and his body left unburied on the open beach, where his faithful freedman, aided by an old soldier who had once served under him, having collected the wrecks of a fishing-boat, washed and burned it.

Cæsar, who with his usual energy had gone in pursuit of Pompey, though he had not more than four thousand men with him, boldly landed in Egypt². There he soon gave offence by his partiality to *Cleopatra*, whose charms had enslaved him; and a plan was formed to overwhelm him at Alexandrîa before he could be joined by fresh troops. He defended himself against the Egyptian army in the palace; and that he might not be completely blockaded, he secured the entrance to the port, and set fire to the enemy's shipping³. An army came to his relief from Syria; and he soon triumphed over his foes. Ptolemy was drowned in the Nile, when trying to escape after a defeat, and *Cleopatra* was made queen of Egypt, B. C. 47.

The news having reached Cæsar, that *Pharnâces*, the son of *Mithridâtes*, was making a successful attempt to recover Pontus; he hastened to oppose him. He gave him battle on the very day that he came up to him, and utterly overcame him¹. After this success, he returned to Rome (in which some disturbances had been raised by *P. Cornelius*

² Pompey's head and ring were given him. He shed tears at the sight.

³ The fire reached the celebrated library of Alexandrîa, which was almost all destroyed.

¹ He announced his victory at Rome by the famous words, "*Veni, vidi, vici.*"

Dolabella, who had tried to carry a law for the abolition of debts); and having put down by his firmness a dangerous mutiny of his favourite tenth legion, he set sail for Africa, where *Q. Metellus Scipio*, Pompey's father-in-law, *Petreius*, and others of the same party, aided by *Juba*, king of Numidia, were in arms.

A victory gained by Cæsar at Thapsus, B. C. 46, decided the fate of the Africa war, which lasted some months. *Scipio*, *Juba*, and *Petreius*, eventually perished by a voluntary death. *Cato*, who was in command at Utica, disdained to avail himself of Cæsar's clemency; and when he found that resistance was hopeless, he committed suicide, after reading Plato's treatise on the Immortality of the Soul. The first wound was not mortal; but while the surgeon was dressing it, he tore it open, and died. The government of the new province of Numidia was given to the historian *Sallust* (*C. Sallustius Crispus*), whose extortions made him infamous.

Cæsar celebrated his return to Rome by four magnificent triumphs². He also made several useful laws, and his famous reform of the calendar³. But before long, he was obliged to hasten to Spain, where Pompey's sons, *Cnæus* and *Sextus*, occupied the strong mountains in the south. A fierce struggle took place, which was terminated on the field of Munda, near Corduba, B. C. 45, in a battle which at one time Cæsar all but lost. *Cnæus* Pompey shortly afterwards was overtaken by his pursuers, and perished. *Sextus* made his escape.

When Cæsar once more returned to Rome, the dictator-

² For Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Numidia.

³ Under the old system, a month was intercalated every now and then to make the lunar years correspond with the course of the sun and the seasons. But from political reasons, the pontiffs had done it irregularly. Cæsar made the year solar instead of lunar, and inserted an additional day every four years.

ship which he had held for years, was conferred on him for life. He made preparations for a Parthian war, and formed other great designs which he never lived to carry out. For though he treated the vanquished with real kindness of heart, his carelessness in not rising one day when the senate waited upon him, and his evident desire to be made a king⁴, gave such deep offence, that a conspiracy was formed against his life. *Cassius*, who, after the death of Crassus, had sided with Pompey, and had been forgiven, and even promoted to a prætorship, was the prime mover; having been vexed at the préférence given by Cæsar to *M. Junius Brutus*⁵, a better man than himself, whom he also drew into the plot. On the ides of March, B.C. 44, Cæsar was surrounded in the senate-house by the conspirators; and he fell at the foot of Pompey's statue, pierced with twenty-three wounds from their daggers.

Thus in the name of liberty,—in reality, to restore the power of a corrupt and turbulent mob at Rome, which was wielded by a few nobles for their own benefit, and to the ruin of Italy and the provinces,—was murdered the only man who at that time was able and fit to govern. Not only as a warrior, but also as an orator and statesman, Cæsar is to be admired for his matchless genius; and if he had many faults, it should be remembered that he lived in an infidel and degenerate age.

⁴ At the feast of the Lupercalia, M. Antony offered Cæsar the diadem, who, seeing that the people gave no approval, rejected it with rather an ill grace.

⁵ He was descended from the Brutus who had taken the lead in the expulsion of Tarquin the Proud.

SECTION IX.

FROM THE DEATH OF CÆSAR TO THE FALL OF THE
COMMONWEALTH.

- B.C. 44. Brutus and Cassius leave Rome. Rivalry of Antony and Octavian. Antony attacks D. Brutus.
43. Hirtius and Pansa slain at Mutina. *The Second Triumvirate*. The Proscriptions ; Cicero murdered.
42. Battles of Philippi ; Cassius and Brutus die.
41. L. Antonius and Fulvia attack Octavian.
40. Perusia surrenders. Peace of Brundisium. Parthian War.
39. Peace with Sex. Pompey at Misēnum.
38. War between Sex. Pompey and Octavian renewed.
36. Defeat of Sex. Pompey. Lepidus deposed.
32. Antony divorces Octavia.
31. *Battle of Actium*.
30. Death of Antony and Cleopatra. Egypt conquered.
27. Octavian receives the title of Augustus.

The murder of Cæsar revived the drooping attachment of the people, and the conspirators took refuge in the Capitol. All parties, however, were soon reconciled ; and at the motion of Cicero, an amnesty was agreed to.

A great error was made in allowing Cæsar, in whose will were munificent legacies to the citizens, to have a public funeral. The consul, Mark Antony, being a kinsman of the deceased⁶, pronounced the oration over his body when it was about to be carried to the Campus Martius for burning, and so excited the people that they made a pile in the forum, and burnt it there. They next attacked the houses of the conspirators, who were obliged to leave Rome.

⁶ He was the son of *Julia*, a sister of Cæsar.

Antony got possession of Cæsar's property and of his papers, the execution of his acts having been committed to the consuls. He now paid his own debts; gained over supporters, particularly among the soldiers; and made Cæsar's secretary forge deeds and grants which served his own purposes. On the other hand, to disarm opposition, he consented to a decree which abolished the dictatorship for ever.

Cæsar had bequeathed most of his property to his grand-nephew, *C. Octavius*¹, a youth of nineteen, then studying at Apollonia, whom he also adopted by will. Octavian, as Octavius was now called (his name after his adoption being *C. Julius Cæsar Octaviānus*), went to Rome and claimed his inheritance. Antony tried hard not to give up what remained of it; but Octavian stood firm, and carried his point.

Octavian had early made Cicero his friend, and he became the hope of the aristocratical party, between whom and Antony the breach daily widened. The latter at length set himself at the head of some legions which had declared for him, and attempted to seize upon Cisalpine Gaul, the province of *D. Brutus*, whom he actually besieged in Mutina. For this, he was indignantly denounced by Cicero, and after some negotiation treated as a public enemy. Three armies, under the consuls *A. Hirtius* and *C. Vibius Pansa*, and Octavian, who had been made pro-prætor, marched to the relief of *D. Brutus*; the siege was raised, B.C. 43, and Antony forced to flee with a small remnant of his army into Transalpine Gaul. There he was joined by *L. Æmilius Lepidus*, an adherent of Cæsar², who with an army was on his way to Spain, which was his province.

¹ Cæsar's sister *Julia* married *M. Atius Balbus*. Her daughter *Atia* married *C. Octavius*, and was mother of young Octavius.

² He had succeeded him as chief pontiff.

In the engagements which had taken place at Mutina, Hirtius and Pansa had fallen ; and there was now a change in the policy of Octavian, who resolved to unite himself with Antony and Lepidus. He began by demanding the consulship at the head of his army. His next step, when consul, was the law proposed by his kinsman and colleague *Q. Pedius*, by which all who were concerned in Cæsar's murder were impeached and outlawed. He then met Antony and Lepidus in a small river-island near Bononia, where it was agreed that they should form a triumvirate for five years⁹, and that war should be waged against Brutus and Cassius. Long proscription lists were made out, in which many names were inserted merely from motives of rapacity. Octavian disgraced himself by sacrificing Cicero to the vengeance of Antony, by whom the head and hands of this great orator were placed on the *rostra*¹.

Antony and Octavian afterwards crossed over with an army into Greece, which, as well as Asia, was in the possession of the republicans. When they reached Macedonia, they found themselves opposed by Brutus and Cassius, who had just returned from the east. Two battles were fought near Philippi, B.C. 42, in one of which, the wing commanded by Cassius having been defeated, he bade a slave put an end to his life ; and in the other, Brutus, when after a desperate struggle all was lost, followed his friend's example.

After this victory, Antony passed over into Asia Minor, where he levied immense contributions from the unfortunate inhabitants. At Tarsus in Cilicia, Cleopatra, whom he had summoned thither, to give account of her conduct,

⁹ *Triumviri rei publicæ constituendæ*. Lepidus was to have Spain and Narbonese Gaul ; Antony, the rest of Gaul, Cisalpine and Transalpine ; Octavian, Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa.

¹ The pulpit in the forum from which orators addressed the people.

enslaved him with her charms; and he had the weakness to follow her into Egypt.

Meanwhile, great misery was caused in Italy by the confiscation of whole districts, for the purpose of rewarding the legions of the triumvirs, and by the lawlessness of the soldiers themselves, whom Octavian was unable to keep within bounds. *Fulvia*², Antony's wife, anxious to recall her husband from Cleopatra, instigated *L. Antonius*, his brother, who at the time was consul, to declare himself the protector of the oppressed, and to take up arms against Octavian. Though joined by the remains of the republican party, they were soon shut up in Perusia, where, after a desperate resistance, famine made them surrender, B.C. 40. *L. Antonius* and *Fulvia* were pardoned; but the cruel, cunning, and cowardly Octavian was as unrelenting as ever towards the unfortunate republicans. They were never able to make another effort.

Mark Antony was now on his return. He met *Fulvia* in Greece, whom he loaded with reproaches and left on her death-bed at Sicyon; and proceeding to Italy, made his appearance before Brundisium with a large fleet and army. Through the intervention of *C. Cilnius Mæcenas*, and other friends, peace was agreed upon, which was to be cemented by the union of Antony with the amiable *Octavia*, Octavian's half sister. Octavian was to have the western provinces; Antony, Greece, and the east; and *Lepidus*, Africa. The next year, the two rivals also made peace at Misenum with *Sextus Pompey*, who after Cæsar's death had collected a large pirate fleet, and by capturing the corn ships had made food scarce at Rome. He obtained Sicily, Sardinia, and other islands, and restitution of rights for himself and his adherents³. The proscription was also to cease.

² This abandoned woman was *Clodius*' widow.

³ When he entertained the triumvirs on board his ship, one of his pirate captains proposed to cut the cables, and carry them off. But he refused.

The peace did not last. A fleet was built under the able management of *M. Vipsanius Agrippa*, Octavian's earliest friend and best officer, who greatly distinguished himself in the war which followed. After several victories and reverses, Sextus Pompey was expelled from Sicily, B. C. 36. He fled to Asia Minor, where he was put to death the next year by one of Antony's officers. The possession of Sicily was claimed by Lepidus; but Octavian tampered with his soldiers, and had the courage to enter into his camp, and depose him. His life was spared.

The policy of Octavian had much changed of late; and now that his power had been established in blood, he sought to strengthen it by gaining the affection of his subjects: Antony, on the other hand, after an inglorious war with Parthia, had given himself up to sensuality in the company of Cleopatra, whom he had at length the madness to marry, and also to give mortal offence to Octavian by divorcing his sister, B. C. 32.

The decisive event of the war which followed, was the sea-fight at Actium, B. C. 31. In the midst of it, Cleopatra fled with her ships; and as Antony had the weakness to follow her, his fleet was beaten, and his army on shore, which was animated with the best spirit, was left without a leader, and forced to submit to Octavian, who soon made himself master of the east.

Egypt remained to be conquered. When Octavian invaded it, B. C. 30, a feeble resistance was made by Antony, who, deserted almost by every one, laid violent hands on himself. He did not die at once, but was conveyed into the refuge which Cleopatra had chosen for herself and for her treasures, where he breathed his last. Cleopatra fell into the power of the conqueror; and when she found that she could not move him either to love or compassion, but was only to be spared that she might grace his triumph,

she died by the bite of a poisonous asp, which she had caused to be hidden in a basket of figs.

Octavian from henceforth reigned alone. He afterwards received the title of emperor (*imperātor*, or commander-in-chief of the army), as a prænomen, B.C. 27 ; and he likewise became censor, perpetual tribune, and, after the death of Lepidus, chief pontiff. By the flattery of the senate, he was also honoured with the surname of *Augustus*.

SECTION X.

HISTORY OF THE ROMAN EMPERORS.

B.C. 30. *Augustus reigns alone.*

4. BIRTH OF JESUS CHRIST.

A.D. 9. Defeat of Quintilius Varus.

14. *Tiberius*.

19. Death of Germanicus.

31. Fall of Sejānus.

37. *Caligula*.

41. *Claudius*.

43. Claudius invades Britain.

48. Messalina put to death.

44. *Nero*.

55. Britannicus poisoned.

59. Murder of Agrippina.

64. Fire at Rome. Persecution of the Christians.

65. Piso's conspiracy.

68. Vindex and Galba revolt. Death of Nero.

AUGUSTUS, though he exercised all the power of sovereignty, assumed very little of its state⁴. Dreading the

⁴ Whenever he was not consul, there was little besides the purple colour of his garments, and the respect which men unconsciously pay to those who are powerful, to distinguish him from any private citizen of rank.

fate of *Cæsar*, he affected more than once to resign his authority ; but was always persuaded to allow it to be renewed for ten years. His government was mild and beneficial, and he engaged in no wars of conquest⁵. When he died, A. D. 14, he bequeathed his authority to *Tiberius*⁶, the son of his wife *Livia*, by *Tiberius Claudius Nero*, her former husband.

TIBERIUS, a crafty and suspicious tyrant⁷, became jealous of his nephew *Germanicus*, who was renowned for his victories over the Germans and their hero *Arminius*, and removed him to the government of the east, where he died about two years afterwards, A. D. 19. He now freely indulged his vicious propensities, and at length retired to the island of *Capreæ*, where he passed his time in sensual pleasures. In the mean time, his artful minister *Sejānus* poisoned his son *Drusus*, and was fast getting rid of the imperial family in order to raise himself to the throne. But his designs against the emperor's life were detected, and he was put to death, A. D. 31.

Tiberius died A. D. 37, being strangled by his attendants, who dreaded his recovery from a fit during which they had proclaimed *Caius Cæsar* (nicknamed *Caligula*⁸), the youthful son of *Germanicus*, as his successor.

⁵ The only disaster in this reign was the destruction of *Quintilius Varus* and his army in Germany, A. D. 9.

⁶ *Augustus* had by his repudiated wife *Scribonia*, a daughter named *Julia*. She was married to Octavia's son *Marcellus*, and after his untimely death, to Agrippa, and then to *Tiberius*, by whom she was hated, being indeed a worthless woman. *Tiberius* retired to *Rhodes*, and lived there in a sort of banishment, until fate, or the arts of *Livia*, had removed the rest of the imperial family ; on which he was recalled and adopted by *Augustus*.

⁷ Like his brother *Drusus* (the father of *Germanicus*), and his own son *Drusus*, this able, but bad man had distinguished himself against the Germans and other barbarians.

⁸ From the little military buskins which he wore when a child.

CAIUS CÆSAR, who made his horse a consul, and who prepared a great expedition against Britain, which ended in his leading his army to the sea-coast of Batavia, and bidding his soldiers pick up shells as trophies, was a cruel, profligate, and extravagant madman. He was killed in the fourth year of his reign, A. D. 41, by *Cassius Cherea*, a tribune of the guards whom he had insulted.

The Senate now attempted to restore the Commonwealth; but *Claudius*, the brother of Germanicus, was found by the soldiers, and raised to the purple.

CLAUDIUS invaded Britain, and undertook several useful works. His mind, however, soon began to decay; and he was governed by worthless favourites, and by his wife *Mesalina*⁹, an infamous woman whom he put to death, when she had the impudence publicly to take another husband, A. D. 48. He then married his niece *Agrippina*, who got him to set aside his own child *Britannicus*, and to adopt *Domitius Ahenobarbus*, her son by a former husband. To secure this settlement, she poisoned the emperor, A. D. 54.

NERO, as Domitius was called, thus raised to the throne while yet a boy, ruled well enough for a time, under the guidance of *Burrhus* and the philosopher *Seneca*. But when he grew older, he poisoned Britannicus; murdered his own mother, and his wife *Octavia*, the daughter of Claudius; persecuted the Christians, on whom he tried to fasten the charge of burning Rome, an atrocity of which he himself was suspected; and was detested for his cruelty and vices¹.

At Rome, *Piso* and others conspired in vain against his

⁹ The conduct of the Roman matrons had for a long time been dreadfully depraved. The facility of divorce was both the consequence and the cause of the most hateful immorality.

¹ He exhibited in public as an actor, a musician, a poet, and a charioteer; and he visited Naples and Greece, to gain the prizes presented by his despicable subjects.

life²; and *Vindex* in Gaul, and *Galba* in Spain, openly rebelled. *Vindex*, however, was defeated; but an accidental revolt at Rome caused the dethronement of Nero, who killed himself in despair, and Galba, though absent, was made emperor, A. D. 68.

A. D. 68. *Galba*.

69. { *Otho*. Battle of Bedriacum.
Vitellius. Battle of Cremōna.
Vespasian.

70. *Jerusalem destroyed*.

79. *Titus*. Eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

81. *Domitian*.

85. Recall of *Agricola*.

GALBA, a weak old man, whose severity and avarice soon made him hated by the army, sought to strengthen himself by adopting *Piso Liciniānus*.

This choice gave great offence to *Otho*, a dissolute courtier, who persuaded the Prætorian guards to proclaim him emperor. Galba and *Piso* perished in the tumult, A. D. 69.

OTHO was soon opposed by the legions of Lower Germany, who declared for their own general *Vitellius*; being defeated by them at Bedriacum, he lost all hope, and committed suicide, A. D. 69.

VITELLIUS, a contemptible glutton, was also opposed by the armies in Syria and Egypt, by whom *Flavius Vespasian*, then carrying on the war with the Jews, who had revolted in the reign of Nero, was chosen to be emperor. *Antonius Primus* got the Pannonian legions and other malcontents to espouse their cause; and after defeating the Vitellians at Cremōna, he advanced to Rome, and put the emperor to death like a common criminal, A. D. 69.

VESPASIAN, whose fault was avarice, died A. D. 79. In

² On this occasion Seneca and the poet *Lucan* were ordered to die.

the early part of his useful reign, his son *Titus* took Jerusalem, A.D. 70, and destroyed it as Christ had foretold.

TITUS reigned well for about two years, in the course of which Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed by an eruption from Mount Vesuvius. He died A.D. 81.

DOMITIAN, his brother, was a worthless tyrant, who was unable to keep the barbarians near the Danube from ravaging his frontiers³. He was murdered by his wife and the officers of his household, who had chanced to find their own names on a list of persons whom he meant to put to death, A.D. 96.

The Five Good Emperors.

A.D. 66. *Nerva*.

98. *Trajan*.

106. Dacia conquered.

114. *Trajan* invades the east.

117. *Adrian*.

131. Revolt of the Jews (ends 136).

138. *Antoninus Pius*.

161. *M. Aurelius*, and *L. Verus*.

162. Parthian War (ends 166).

169. Death of *Verus*.

NERVA, a Spaniard, was a mild old man without much energy, who to protect himself adopted the valiant *Trajan* his fellow-countryman. He died A.D. 98.

TRAJAN repelled the barbarians, subdued Dacia, and carried his victorious arms into the east, where he advanced as far as the confines of India. But on his death, A.D. 117, all his conquests were abandoned as untenable by *Adrian*, his nephew and successor⁴.

³ He was jealous of all men of talent. He recalled Agricola from his government in Britain, A.D. 85, and was suspected of hastening his end.

⁴ In this reign the Christians were persecuted. *Pliny*, the pro-consul of Bithynia, wrote to the emperor a letter in which he set

ADRIAN, who visited all the provinces of his empire, died lamented, A. D. 138⁵.

ANTONINUS PIUS, whom Adrian had adopted, reigned in peace, and died A. D. 161.

MARCUS AURELIUS took LUCIUS VERUS for his colleague, and sent him to the east against the Parthians, where he spent his time in riotous pleasures, while his lieutenants earned for him the honours of a triumph.

After the return of Verus, (whose death, A. D. 169, was a public benefit,) the empire was desolated by pestilence and famine, and invaded by successive hordes of barbarians. These were, however, repelled by the admirable skill and energy of Aurelius, who ended his brilliant career at Vienna, where he died of the plague, A. D. 180, and was succeeded by his son.

A. D. 180. *Commodus*.

193. *Didius Juliānus. Sevērus. Pertinax.*

194. Defeat of Niger at Issus.

197. Albinus defeated near Lyons.

211. Caracalla and Geta.

212. Geta murdered.

217. *Macrinus*.

218. *Elagabalus*.

222. *Alexander Sevērus*.

235. *Maximin*.

238. Death of the Gordians. *Pupiēnus and Balbinus*.
Gordian.

244. *Philip*.

COMMODUS was like Domitian in his character, and in his fate. He was murdered by his concubine *Marcia* and the officers of his household, A. D. 193.

forth the morality of the Christians and the numbers who were accused. On this, Trajan said that the Christians should not be officially sought out; but that if any were accused and convicted, they should die.

⁵ A dreadful revolt of the Jews under *Barchocheba*, the false Messiah, was put down with immense slaughter in this reign. Num-

PERTINAX tried to reform the discipline of the Prætorians⁶, who had raised him to the throne, and was soon killed by these ruffians, who put up the empire to be sold.

DIDIUS JULIĀNUS, a rich lawyer, bought it; but *Albinus* in Britain, *Niger* in Syria, and *Sevêrus* in Pannonia, would not acknowledge him. The last of these marched into Italy, and the senate had the incapable emperor put to death, A. D. 193.

SEVĒRUS, a cruel and cunning African, temporised with Albinus, until he had overthrown Niger on the famous plains of *Issus*; after which, Albinus in his turn fell near Lyons, A. D. 197. Sevêrus, who made the system of government an undisguised military despotism, died in Britain, where he had repressed the Caledonians.

BASSIANUS ANTONĪNUS, (nicknamed CARACALLA⁷), and GETA succeeded their father, A. D. 211. Caracalla soon slew Geta in his mother's arms, and proved himself to be a detestable tyrant⁸.

MACRĪNUS, at whose instigation Caracalla was murdered, A. D. 217, lost the affection of the army by trying to restore discipline; and the intrigues of *Julia Mæsa*, sister-in-law of Sevêrus, kindled a civil war which cost him his life, A. D. 218.

ELAGABALUS⁹, the youthful grandson of Mæsa, was a monster of vice and sensuality. Mæsa, seeing that he was unfit to reign, got him to adopt his cousin *Alexander*; and

bers of them were sold for slaves, and the rest were driven out of Palestine. From that time, A. D. 136, they have ceased to exist as a nation.

⁶ The Prætorians were the imperial guards.

⁷ Derived from a long Gallic gown which he distributed to the Roman people.

⁸ In this reign the citizenship was extended to all the subjects of the empire. This was done, that none might be exempted from taxes.

⁹ He was so named because he was the high priest of the sun at *Emesa*. *Elagabalus* means the Plastic God.

when he attempted to revoke this act he was slain by the soldiers, A. D. 222.

ALEXANDER SEVĒRUS, a mild and amiable youth, reigned prosperously, but fell a victim to a sedition of his soldiers when opposing the barbarians on the Rhine, A. D. 235.

MAXIMIN, a man of vast size and strength, who, from a Thracian peasant, had risen to the throne, was an odious tyrant. He began the general persecution of the Christians, whose former troubles had been local.

A revolt in Africa against his cruelty was quelled; but the senate and the people of Italy had sympathised with it, and they now elected *Pupiēnus* and *Balbinus* emperors. Maximin, who had successfully warred against the Germans, hastened into Italy, where his army mutinied, and he was murdered in his sleep, A. D. 238.

PUPIĒNUS and BALBĪNUS disagreed, and shortly afterwards were killed by the guards.

GORDIAN¹, a boy who was under the able guidance of *Misitheus*, his father-in-law, was successful in a war with Persia. But Misitheus died, and *Philip*, a man of Arabian origin, sowed discontent in the army, and murdered the emperor, A. D. 244.

PHILIP, while engaged in a Gothic war, perished in a mutiny of his troops, A. D. 249.

A. D. 249. Decius.

251. Decius slain by the Goths. Gallus.

253. *The Barbarians invade the Empire.*

254. Valerian and Galliēnus.

260. Valerian taken prisoner by Sapor. The Tyrants.

DECIUS, a cruel persecutor of the Christians, was destroyed with his army by the Goths.

¹ He was the grandson of the *Gordian* who with his son had been forced to head the revolt in Africa against Maximin. The son was overpowered, and the elder Gordian died by his own hand, A. D. 238.

GALLUS, who succeeded, A. D. 251, bought a disgraceful peace. Fresh swarms of barbarians, however, burst upon the empire, A. D. 253, and nearly destroyed it. During this confusion, a civil war broke out which proved fatal to Gallus, A. D. 254.

VALERIAN, who avenged Gallus, was taken prisoner by *Sapor*, king of Persia, A. D. 260, and died in captivity seven years afterwards.

GALLIËNUS, his son and colleague, though a man of some talent, was a weak prince. All the provinces of his empire revolted, and such a number of rival emperors sprang up, that they were called "*The Thirty Tyrants*." Galliënus was murdered, A. D. 268.

A. D. 268. *Flavius Claudius*.

270. Aurelian.

273. Zenobia conquered by Aurelian.

275. Tacitus.

276. Probus.

282. Carus, and (283) Carinus and Numerian.

284. Numerian slain. Diocletian.

285. Carinus slain.

FLAVIUS CLAUDIUS, the first of a series of active emperors from the warlike province of Illyricum, revived the discipline of the army, and routed the Goths and Germans; but died in Pannonia of a plague, occasioned by the miseries of the war, A. D. 270.

AURELIAN, a rigid disciplinarian, checked the attempts of the Goths; recovered Gaul, Spain, and Britain from the tyrants; and, passing over into Asia, subdued *Zenobia*, the famous queen of Palmÿra. He fell a victim to a petty conspiracy, A. D. 275.

A strange event now took place. For eight months the throne was vacant, the soldiers referring the election to the senate, and the latter declining it.

TACITUS, chosen by the senate, of which he had been the

senior, was a man worthy of his station ; but, being old, he was soon worn out. He died, A. D. 276.

PROBUS, an active warrior, not only repelled the barbarians, but even retaliated their invasions. His death was caused by a sudden mutiny of the soldiers whom he employed in the toilsome work of draining a fen at Sirmium, his birth-place, A. D. 282.

CARUS, and NUMERIAN and CARINUS, his two sons, were the next emperors. Carus and Numerian marched against the Persians : but Carus is said to have been killed by lightning in his tent, A. D. 283 ; and Numerian, who suffered from weak eyes, was murdered in his litter by *Aper* his father-in-law, A. D. 284. *Diocletian*, however, was elected emperor by his soldiers, who immediately put *Aper* to death.

The worthless Carinus took up arms against the new emperor, and was on the point of gaining a victory, when he was stabbed by an officer whose wife he had seduced, A. D. 285.

A. D. 286. *Diocletian divides the Empire with Maximian.*

287. Carausius revolts in Britain (slain, 293).

292. Diocletian appoints two Cæsars.

296. Death of Allectus ; Constantius recovers Britain.

298. Galerius defeats the Persians.

303. Persecution of the Christians.

305. The Emperors resign. Galerius and Constantius.

306. Sevêrus. Constantine reigns as Cæsar (as Augustus, 308). Maxentius revolts in Italy.

307. Death of Sevêrus. Licinius and (308) Maximin.

310. Death of Maximian.

311. Death of Galerius.

312. Defeat and death of Maxentius.

313. Death of Maximin. The Christians tolerated.

323. Licinius deposed (put to death, 324).

DIOCLETIAN resolved to have a warrior for his colleague to strengthen his rule, and made choice of the brutal MAXIMIAN, a peasant of Sirmium, A. D. 286.

A greater change took place, A. D. 292, when Diocletian, who reigned at Nicomedia over Thrace, Egypt, and the east, and Maximian, who at Milan² governed Africa and the west, having the title of *Augustus*, created two *Cæsars* or junior emperors³. As they had laid aside the more humble style of their predecessors, and assumed all the state of the Eastern kings, the expense of four magnificent courts was a burthen to the people.

Diocletian also began the last and most dreadful persecution of the Christians, A. D. 303, and soon afterwards got Maximian to join with him in resigning the empire.

GALERIUS and CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS, the two *Cæsars*, succeeded, A. D. 305. The latter died in Britain, A. D. 306, and his son *Constantine* was saluted Augustus by the soldiers. Galerius yielded him the title of *Cæsar*, but made SEVĒRUS emperor.

An attempt to tax Italy kindled a revolt, which was headed by *Maxentius*, the son of Maximian, who induced his father to resume the diadem, and make him his colleague. Sevĕrus perished in the attempt to withstand the movement, A. D. 307; and, when Galerius invaded Italy, he was forced to retreat.

Maximian now secured Constantine by giving him his daughter *Fausta*, and the title of Augustus. Galerius also gave the purple to his friend *Licinius* and his nephew *Maximin*; so that at length there were six emperors at once, viz. MAXIMIAN, MAXENTIUS, and CONSTANTINE;

² Rome had now ceased to be the seat of empire.

³ Constantius Chlorus had to govern Gaul, Spain, and Britain. He distinguished himself against *Carausius*, who had become emperor in Britain and was master of the sea; and, after Carausius had been murdered, he overpowered *Allectus*, his successor, A. D. 296. Galerius, who had the Illyrian provinces, was sent against the Persians, whom after some reverses he defeated, A. D. 298. For the achievements of the *Cæsars*, as well as their own, Diocletian and Maximian had a triumph, the last Rome ever beheld, A. D. 302.

GALERIUS, LICINIUS, and MAXIMIN, A.D. 308. Maximian, deposed the year after by his son, retired to Gaul, where he plotted against the life of Constantine, and was made to strangle himself, A. D. 310. Galerius died next, of a loathsome disease, A. D. 311. Maxentius, defeated by Constantine near Rome, was drowned in the Tiber in his flight, A. D. 312. Maximin killed himself when vanquished by Licinius, the ally of Constantine. And Licinius quarrelled with Constantine, who at last deposed him and put him to death, A. D. 324.

A. D. 323. Constantine the Great sole Emperor.

325. *Council of Nice.*

326. Death of Crispus.

330. *Constantinople the Seat of Empire.*

337. Constantine II., Constantius II., and Constans.

340. Constantine defeated and slain.

350. Constans murdered by Magnentius.

351. Battle of Mursa. (353. Death of Magnentius.)

361. Julian revolts ; death of Constantius.

363. *Death of Julian.* Jovian.

To prevent revolts in the provinces, Constantine divided the military from the civil power. The jealousy between these rival authorities weakened the defences of an empire of which the martial spirit was already fast vanishing. Ages of misgovernment, the miseries of civil war, and the reckless habits to which the feeling of insecurity from invasion gives rise, had greatly demoralized the subjects of Rome, while their barbarian foes were daily improving their discipline and becoming more formidable.

He also built on the site of Byzantium the magnificent city of Constantinople, and made it the seat of government, A. D. 330. His reign, otherwise glorious, was, however, disgraced by the execution of his son *Crispus*.

Constantine had from motives of policy, when struggling with his rivals, favoured the Christians, who were perse-

cuted⁴; and he was so far impressed with a sense of the goodness of their religion, that he was baptized in his last illness, A. D. 337. Thus, notwithstanding the deadly hate of Jew and Gentile, and a series of bloody persecutions, the truth of CHRIST, who had been crucified in the reign of Tiberius at Jerusalem, was victorious.

About this time, *Arius*, a priest at Alexandrīa, had kindled an alarming controversy by his false doctrines⁵, which were condemned by a general council of bishops held at Nice⁶, A. D. 325. Constantine himself, and his successors, inclined towards the Arians, who afterwards were guilty of much violence against their opponents, though they did not show any constancy when persecuted in their turn.

Christianity “revived a sense of order and freedom in the” despotic “Roman government’.” Even under a corrupt form, it mitigated the brutal manners of the barbarians; and its spirit has tended, in the course of ages, to put an end to the curse of slavery in most parts of Christendom,—a thing which in heathen and infidel countries has never taken place. It introduced the custom of instructing the lower orders by preaching and catechizing; inculcated the duty of taking care of the poor; and gave birth to hospitals and charity-schools, institutions of which pagan benevolence knew nothing. It also greatly improved the con-

⁴ He was shrewd enough to see that, though their religion had ever kept the Christians from revolting against a persecuting government, the favour of so numerous and respectable a body would add great weight to his cause. He stopped the persecution, A. D. 311, and afterwards published at Milan his famous edict for a general toleration, A. D. 313.

⁵ He taught that Christ was not God from all eternity. His great opponent, *Athanasius*, the undaunted patriarch of *Alexandria*, was five times expelled from his bishopric, and five times restored.

⁶ Or Nicæa in Bithynia.

⁷ “The privileges of the church had already revived a sense of order and freedom in the Roman government.”—GIBBON, ch. xxi.

dition of the world by the establishment of a higher standard of morality.

CONSTANTINE, CONSTANTIUS, and CONSTANS succeeded on the death of their father, at which time the weak and cruel Constantius murdered his uncles and most of his relations. Constantine fell in a war against the vicious Constans, A. D. 340; and Constans himself was murdered ten years afterwards by order of the semi-barbarian *Magnentius*, who was defeated in the bloody battle of Mursa, A. D. 351, and, after repeated losses, killed himself in Gaul, A. D. 353. Constantius, who then reunited the empire, died when about to oppose a revolt in favour of his cousin *Julian*², who, having repelled the Franks, had been named Augustus by the troops, A. D. 361.

JULIAN the Apostate, though the Christians had saved his life when he was young, was a bitter enemy of the Gospel. To decry the prophecies of Christ, he encouraged the Jews to rebuild their temple,—an attempt prevented by a miracle. He lost his life in an unfortunate expedition against the Persians, A. D. 363.

JOVIAN, now elected emperor by his troops, saved the army by an inglorious treaty. He granted toleration to the Christians, and soon afterwards died suddenly.

A. D. 364. Valentinian and Valens.

375. Gratian and Valentinian II.

378. *Battle of Adrianople*. Death of Valens.

379. Theodosius succeeds Valens.

380. Theodosius baptized.

383. Gratian slain. Maximus.

390. Massacre at Thessalonica.

392. Valentinian II. murdered by Arbogastes.

VALENTINIAN, an energetic prince, divided the empire, giving the east to his brother *Valens*. He left his domi-

² Son of *Julius Constantius*, one of his murdered uncles. *Julian's* elder brother *Gallus* had been appointed Cæsar, and sent into the

nions on his death to his sons GRATIAN and VALENTINIAN II., A. D. 375. Both were overpowered by rebels⁹; the latter by the Frank *Arbogastes*, A. D. 392.

VALENS, weak and cruel, greatly favoured the Arians. He allowed the Visigoths¹, whom the advance of the Huns had driven upon his frontier, to cross the Danube, and settle in Moesia. Owing to his mismanagement, they revolted; and he was defeated and killed at the deadly battle of Adrianople, A. D. 378.

THEODOSIUS, who was named by Gratian to succeed VALENS, repelled the barbarians, sometimes by his arms, often by his skilful policy. The death of Valentinian II., which he avenged, left him master of the whole empire.

He was baptized, A. D. 380, and was the first orthodox emperor. He put down the Pagans and the Arians, and established Christianity as the religion of the state. He was, however, once excluded from the communion of the church by *Ambrose*, archbishop of *Milan*, on account of the barbarous severity with which he had punished the people of Thessalonica for the foul murder of his officers;

east, A. D. 351; but he showed himself unfit to reign, and was put to death three years afterwards.

⁹ Gratian fell in a war against *Maximus*, who had led an army of Britons into Gaul, A. D. 383. *Maximus* was acknowledged emperor of Britain, Gaul, and Spain, by Theodosius; but, when he drove Valentinian II. out of Italy, being attacked by Theodosius, he lost his life, A. D. 388.

¹ The *Visigoths* and *Ostrogoths*, i. e. the West and East Goths, were branches of the Goths, a race which from Scandinavia had migrated to the banks of the Vistula, and thence to the Ukraine.

The *Vandal* races, which at first occupied the country between the Elbe and the Vistula, were of kindred blood.

The *Ostrogoths*, under *Hermannic*, had made the *Visigoths* tributaries; but their empire was now broken up by the Huns, A. D. 376.

The *Huns* were a Scythian or Tartar race from the borders of *China*.

and he showed the sincerity of his repentance by an act of public penance.

- A. D. 395. Honorius and Arcadius. *Final Division of the Empire.*
- 406. *Battle of Florence; Radagaise beheaded.*
- 408. *Murder of Stilicho.*
- 410. *Alaric sacks Rome.*

On the death of this great emperor, A. D. 395, the empire was divided for the last time between HONORIUS and ARCADIUS, his degenerate sons. Honorius, who reigned over the west, was successfully defended by the famous *Stilicho* against *Alaric*, the newly elected king of the Visigoths, and also against *Radagaise*, who had rushed into Italy at the head of a host of Vandals and other nations, whom the progress of the Huns had forced to emigrate. *Radagaise* was overpowered at Florence, A. D. 406,—a victory which saved Italy, but could not deter the barbarians from settling in Gaul and Spain.

The base murder of *Stilicho* increased the confusion of the empire²; and at length Rome itself was sacked by *Alaric* and the Visigoths, A. D. 410. But, on the death of their king soon afterwards, the Visigoths agreed to go and oppose the Vandal invaders of Spain, and Aquitaine was ceded to them.

- A. D. 423. Honorius dies. (425. Valentinian III.)
- 431. *Genseric and the Vandals conquer Africa.*
- 432. *Death of Count Boniface.*
- 451. *Battle of Châlons.*
- 453. *Death of Attila.*
- 454. *Ætius murdered.*
- 455. *Maximus. Genseric sacks Rome.*
- 472. *Ricimer sacks Rome, and dies.*
- 476. *Fall of the Western Empire.*

VALENTINIAN III., while yet a youth, succeeded his uncle Honorius, who died A. D. 423. During his minority,

² About this time Britain was also lost.

Africa was lost, *Genseric* and the Vandals in Spain having been invited to invade it by *Count Boniface*, an officer who had been recalled by the intrigues of *Ætius*³, his rival⁴.

The Huns under *Attila*, "the scourge of God," who alone of all conquerors ruled over the nations of Germany and Scythia, next burst upon the empire. *Attila* was repulsed at Châlons by *Ætius*, who had the aid of the Visigoths and Franks, A. D. 451; but the year after, he invaded Italy and made dreadful ravages, on which the timid *Valentinian* was glad to purchase peace. *Attila* died shortly afterwards, and the power of the Huns fell to pieces.

VALENTINIAN basely murdered *Ætius*, and was himself killed, A. D. 455, by *Maximus*, a senator of noble birth, whom he had wronged.

MAXIMUS forced *Eudoxia*, the emperor's widow, to marry him; but she revenged herself by calling on *Genseric* and the African Vandals to invade Italy. He lost his life in a tumult, and Rome was pillaged by the Vandals, A. D. 455.

The real power of the state now fell into the hands of *Ricimer*, who, being a barbarian and disqualified for the purple, governed in the name of emperors whom he created and deposed. In the course of one of these outbreaks, he plundered Rome, A. D. 472, soon after which he died from intemperance.

A few more feeble emperors rapidly succeeded, the last of whom, *ROMULUS AUGUSTUS*, or *AUGUSTULUS*, was deposed by his barbarian troops. Thus the *western empire* came to an end, A. D. 476.

A. D. 493. The Ostrogoths conquer Italy.

534. *Belisarius* conquers the Vandals.

³ More correctly, *Ætius*.

⁴ *Ætius* afterwards attacked *Boniface*, who had been pardoned for what he had done: the latter fell at the moment that victory was about to declare for him, A. D. 432.

A. D. 552. Narses defeats Totila the Ostrogoth.

569. The Lombards conquer the north of Italy.

622. *The Hegira.*

1453. *Fall of the Eastern Empire.*

After the death of the children of ARCADIOUS, the *eastern empire*⁵ greatly declined until the days of JUSTINIAN, whose generals, *Belisarius*, and the eunuch *Narses*, recovered Africa and Italy from the Vandals and Ostrogoths⁶, about the middle of the sixth century. Italy was soon lost again⁷; and the provinces in Asia and Africa fell a prey to the Saracens of Arabia, the followers of the false prophet *Mahomet* who began his career A. D. 622⁸. After the fall of the Saracens, the empire somewhat revived. But it was overthrown at length by the Turks, when their sultan *Mahomet II.* took Constantinople, and the last emperor CONSTANTINE PALÆOLOGUS nobly died, A. D. 1453.

⁵ Also called the *Greek Empire*.

⁶ *Odoacer*, the chief who had deposed Augustulus, and who called himself king of the Heruli, was overcome by the Ostrogoths, who under *Theodoric* conquered Italy, A. D. 493.

⁷ The Lombards, a Vandal race, under *Alboin*, conquered the north of Italy.

⁸ His flight from Mecca to Medina, where he was first received as a prophet, is called the *Hegira*.

PART III.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

THE BRITONS AND ROMANS.

- B. C. 55 [and 54] *Cæsar invades Britain.*
 A. D. 43. Claudius undertakes the conquest of Britain.
 50. Caractacus taken by Ostorius.
 61. Paulinus conquers Mona. Revolt of Boadicea.
 62. Death of Boadicea.
 78 to 85. Agricola reduces South Britain.
 121. Wall of Adrian ; 146. Wall of Antonine ; 208. Wall
 of Severus.
 412. The Romans abandon Britain.
 449. *The Saxons enter England.*

THE Britons, the original inhabitants of England, were partly Cimbric, partly Belgic¹. They were governed by a number of chiefs, and were very much under the influence of their priests or Druids. The rites of their religion were bloody, and their manners barbarous².

¹ The Belgæ, who were settled in the southern and eastern parts of the island, were agricultural, and far more civilized than the rest of the natives, who lived on the milk and flesh of their flocks, or even on what they could get by hunting. These last were clad in the skins of beasts, and their half-naked bodies were tattooed with woad.

² Among the *Druids* were a class of poets called *Bards*. The oak

The island, being visited only by the Phœnicians for the sake of its hides and tin, was almost unknown to the ancients, until it was twice invaded by Julius Cæsar, who first landed, B. C. 55³. He contented himself, however, with humbling the natives; and it was not until the reign of Claudius, A. D. 43, that conquest was attempted. *Plautius* (who, with the celebrated Vespasian, was left by the emperor to command in Britain) and his successor *Ostorius* were gallantly opposed by *Caractacus*, the prince of the Silüres, who was at length overpowered and led a prisoner to Rome. In the reign of Nero, *Suetonius Paulinus* destroyed the sacred seat of the Druids in Mona or Anglesey, and afterwards vanquished the Britons, whom the wrongs of *Boadicea*, the queen of the Icēni, had roused to make a dreadful onslaught upon the Roman settlements. The conquest of South Britain was completed in the reign of *Domitian*, A. D. 84, by the able but ill-fated *Agricola*, who built a chain of forts between the Fórth and the Clyde, and compelled the people to adopt the civilization of Rome⁴.

When the power of Rome declined, and the troops quartered in Britain had been called away to the defence of Italy by the emperor *Honorius*, A. D. 412, the Britons, who were now Christians, once more became their own masters. But they had to repel the incursions of the Picts

was deemed holy by them; and the mistletoe, which grew upon it, was cut with a golden knife, and gathered with great solemnity by the chief Druid.

³ The chief *Cassivelaun* headed the Britons in their resistance to Cæsar.

⁴ The emperor *Hadrian* built an earthen wall from the Tyne to the Solway, A. D. 121. In 146 A. D., *Lollius Urbicus* restored the old line of *Agricola*, which, after the reigning emperor, was called the wall of *Antoninus*; and the emperor *Sevêrus* replaced the wall of *Adrian* by magnificent works which were built of stone, A. D. 208.

and Scots ⁵, whom the Roman legions, and the walls built from sea to sea, had hitherto kept in check ; and their distresses were made greater by plague, famine, bad government, civil war, and the attacks of Saxon pirates ⁶.

In the year 449, *Vortigern*, one of the British princes, rashly engaged two of these pirates, the brothers *Hengist* and *Horsa*, to serve him as mercenaries. These dangerous allies soon formed the design of conquering the country for themselves ; and, as they were continually reinforced by fresh swarms of their countrymen, a fierce struggle ensued for a hundred and fifty years ⁷, at the end of which, notwithstanding the somewhat fabulous exploits of *Arthur* and other heroes, the Britons were either driven into Wales and Cornwall, or forced to emigrate to Armorica in Gaul, now called Brittany.

THE SAXONS.

A. D. 585. *The Heptarchy.*

597. Conversion of Ethelbert.

827. Egbert ends the Heptarchy.

836. Ethelwulf.

850. The Danes first winter in England.

⁵ The *Picts* seem to have been the same as the savage Caledonians of North Britain. They were conquered by the *Scots*, who came from the north of Ireland, and eventually blended into one people with them.

⁶ The *Saxons* were a people of Gothic race, settled in Denmark, and in the north of Germany, near the Elbe. Their name became common to the tribes which inhabited Jutland, Sleswick, Holstein, Westphalia, Saxony, Friesland, Holland, and Zealand. Their stature, strength, and courage were great ; they despised manual labour, and in the intervals of pillage and piracy would spend their time in gaming and drinking. A ruined gambler often staked his liberty on a last throw of the dice.

⁷ *All this part of history is very uncertain.* At all events, the struggle, when we remember how easily the barbarians overran Europe and Roman Africa, proves that the Britons could not have been as unwarlike as they are commonly thought to have become.

- A. D. 858. Ethelbald.
- 860. Ethelbert.
- 865. Death of Ragnar.
- 866. Ethelred. The Great Danish Invasion.
- 871. Battle of Morton.

The Saxons established seven kingdoms in England⁸, and this system, called the *Heptarchy*, naturally gave rise to endless wars. During the Heptarchy, *Augustine*, a monk sent from Rome by pope *Gregory the Great*, converted *Ethelbert*, the king of Kent, to Christianity⁹, A. D. 597, and became the first archbishop of Canterbury. The Gospel was gradually preached in the other kingdoms, and England again became Christian.

At length the Heptarchy was dissolved, A. D. 827, by *EGBERT*, king of Wessex¹, who not only had possession of the south of England, but also obliged the Anglian kings to acknowledge him their superior. In his reign, the Danes or Normans infested England, entering the mouths of

⁸ Namely, *Kent*, founded by Hengist and the JUTES from Denmark; *Essex*, *Sussex*, and *Wessex*, founded by the old SAXONS; and *Mercia*, *East Anglia*, and *Northumbria* (which last was sometimes divided into the separate kingdoms of *Bernicia* and *Deira*), founded by the ANGLES, who came from Holstein, from whom the name of England is derived. Several of the Saxon princes, as Ethelbert of Kent, *Edwin* of Northumbria, *Offa* of Mercia, and *Ina* and Egbert of Wessex, gained an ascendancy over the other kingdoms. Historians have called them *Bretwaldas*, or "Wielders of Britain."

⁹ Ethelbert's wife *Bertha*, the daughter of *Charibert*, king of Paris, was already a Christian. A daughter of Ethelbert afterwards married Edwin, king of Northumbria, who was converted, A. D. 626, by *Paulinus*, the first archbishop of York.

The ancient British bishops would not acknowledge the authority of *Augustine* or of the pope; and nearly six centuries elapsed before *Baldwin*, archbishop of *Canterbury* in Henry II.'s reign, extended the jurisdiction of his see into Wales.

¹ He was the last remaining prince of the house of *Cerdic*, the first king of Wessex.

rivers in their light vessels, and thence sallying forth in search of slaves and booty².

ETHELWULF, his son, succeeded, A. D. 836. In the time of this well-disposed but weak prince, who gave up part of his kingdom to his son *Athelstan*, the Danes ventured to winter in England.

ETHELBALD, the warlike but profligate son of Ethelwulf, after the death of Athelstan, king of Kent, forced his father to give up to him the whole of Wessex, A. D. 856. Ethelwulf died two years afterwards, leaving the kingdom of Kent to *Ethelbert*, a younger son³.

ETHELBERT likewise succeeded to the throne of his brother, A. D. 860. In the last year of his reign, *Ragnar Lodbrog*, a famous Danish sea-king who had once plundered Paris, was taken prisoner by the Northumbrians, and barbarously put to death, A. D. 865. Ragnar's sons, and thousands of his countrymen, swore to avenge him: and they were as good as their word.

ETHELRED, the brother of Ethelbert, had soon to face the outbreak of this storm. The Danes conquered Northumbria and East Anglia, of which the ill-fated kings were tortured and killed⁴, and fell upon Wessex. After some

² By the laws of the *Danes*, the younger sons had no other inheritance than their swords and ships; so that they lived by piracy. The "*sea-kings*," or pirate chiefs, would haul their ships ashore, and leave them defended by a guard and an intrenchment; if they met with a superior force, they would again embark, and sail away to attack other parts of the coast.

Under *Rollo* the *Ganger*, the Normans gained possession of *Neustria*, thenceforth called Normandy, A. D. 912.

³ The worthless Ethelbert now married *Judith*, his father's young widow and the daughter of the emperor *Charles the Bald*. *Swithin*, the bishop of *Winchester*, aided by public opinion, compelled him to put her away.

⁴ *Edmund*, the last Saxon king of East Anglia, was afterwards made a saint. He was buried at Bury St. Edmund's.

bloody battles, Ethelred was at last mortally wounded at Morton in Berkshire, A. D. 871.

A. D. 871. *Alfred king of Wessex.*

878. Alfred defeats Gothrun.

901. Edward the Elder.

920. Edward unites Mercia to his kingdoms.

ALFRED THE GREAT, the youngest of Ethelwulf's sons, successfully struggled against the Danes for some years, until he was surprised in the depth of winter by *Gothrun*, the king of East Anglia, and forced to take refuge in the isle of Athelney, in the marshes of Somersetshire. The defeat and death of *Ubbo*⁵ in Devonshire, and the capture of the Raven, his enchanted standard, having revived the courage of the Saxons, Alfred soon came forth from this retreat, and completely routed the Danes, who agreed to be baptized, and to live peaceably in the two kingdoms which they had conquered, A. D. 878.

By creating a navy and organizing a militia, Alfred secured the peace of England, of which he also revised the laws and improved the institutions. In spite of many disadvantages,—his education had been neglected, his health was bad, his occupations many, and his age illiterate,—he was a prince of uncommon learning and genius, and, though naturally haughty, his heart was chastened by adversity. Few princes, few men have lived so completely under the guidance of religious principle.

EDWARD THE ELDER, his son, who became king of the Anglo-Saxons, A. D. 901, had to fight for his crown against his cousin *Ethelwald*, the son of king Ethelbert⁶. He

⁵ Ubbo and Gothrun were sons of Ragnar.

⁶ *Adhelm* and *Ethelwald*, the sons of Ethelbert, had been set aside by their uncles Ethelred and Alfred the Great, *because they were too young to reign*. The strict rule of hereditary succession was not established in England until the time of Edward I.

united the great midland kingdom of Mercia⁷ to his territory, and reduced the Danes of East Anglia.

A. D. 925. Athelstan.

927. Athelstan reduces Northumbria.

938. *Athelstan, king of England, defeats Anlaf.*

941. Edmund. Anlaf seizes Northumbria.

942. Death of Anlaf; Northumbria recovered.

946. Edmund is killed by Leof. Edred.

955. Edwy.

959. Edgar.

975. Edward the Martyr.

978. Edward murdered. Ethelred the Unready.

1002. Massacre of the Danes.

1013. Sweyn conquers England.

1014. Flight of Ethelred. Sweyn dies.

1016. Edmund Ironside. Battle of Assington.

ATHELSTAN, whose mother was either a concubine or a wife of low origin, succeeded his father, A. D. 925. This prince seized Northumbria, and thus became the first king of all England. He strengthened his power by a great victory at Brunanburgh, A. D. 938, where he defeated *Anlaf*, the son of the last Northumbrian king, and the Danes, Britons, Scotch, and Irish, his allies⁸.

EDMUND, his brother, succeeded, A. D. 941. He lost the north of England, but regained it on the death of Anlaf; and was killed at a feast by *Leof*, a noted outlaw, whom he had ordered to leave the room, A. D. 946.

EDRED, brother to the last king, whose sons were infants, reigned next. He died, A. D. 955, and *Edwy the Fair*, the son of Edmund, now obtained the crown.

⁷ It had greatly suffered from the Danes, and it had already become tributary to Alfred.

⁸ At the court of Athelstan, *Haco the Good*, king of Norway, *Lewis d'Outremer*, king of France, and *Alan of Brittany* were brought up; and his sisters were married to the emperor *Otho the Great*, *Lewis*, king of Provence, *Charles the Simple*, king of France, and *Hugh the Great*, count of Paris.

EDWY quarrelled with the monk *Dunstan* and the clergy for marrying his distant cousin *Ethelgiva*. She was treated with shocking barbarity; his subjects were stirred up to revolt; and his brother *Edgar* was put in possession of a great part of his kingdom. The suspicious death of Edwy, A. D. 959, made Edgar master of the whole.

EDGAR, named the Peaceful, because his powerful fleet kept England safe from invasion, was an able but most immoral prince⁹. He died A. D. 975.

EDWARD THE MARTYR, his son (in whose reign *Dunstan*, now archbishop of Canterbury, was actively engaged in enforcing the celibacy of the clergy), was stabbed as he was drinking the stirrup-cup when leaving Corfe Castle, where he had paid a visit to his step-mother *Elfrida*, A. D. 978.

ETHELRED THE UNREADY, whom *Elfrida*, his mother, had thus raised to the throne, was a weak prince, quite unable to repel the repeated invasions of the Danes,—an evil which he greatly aggravated by his wicked folly in causing a number of them to be massacred, A. D. 1002.

He was at length driven out of England by *Sweyn*, the Danish king, and forced to take refuge in Normandy¹, A. D. 1014. But *Sweyn* died soon afterwards, on which *Ethelred* was enabled to return. *Sweyn's* design of conquering England was, however, soon renewed by his son *Canute*, who was aided by the wretched feuds among the Saxons; and while the struggle was going on, and his country's misery was at its height, *Ethelred* died, A. D. 1016.

EDMUND IRONSIDE, *Ethelred's* valiant son, owing to the

⁹ He once made the Scotch king and seven kings besides row him in his barge on the river Dee. He is likewise remarkable for having changed the tribute imposed by *Athelstan* upon the Welsh into a yearly present of 300 wolves' heads.

¹ *Ethelred's* second wife, *Emma*, was daughter of *Richard I.*, duke of Normandy.

treachery of *Edric*, earl of *Mercia*², was defeated at Assington, and was forced to give up *Mercia* and *Northumbria* to *Canute*. He died soon afterwards, A. D. 1016.

THE DANISH KINGS OF ENGLAND.

A. D. 1016. *The Danes conquer England.—Canute.*

1035. *Harold Harefoot.*

1037. *Murder of Alfred.*

1040. *Hardecanute.*

CANUTE THE GREAT, who now became king of England, put *Edric* to death; and, to avoid a war with *Richard II.*, duke of *Normandy*, he agreed to marry his sister *Emma*, *Ethelred's* widow, and to entail the crown on the issue of that marriage. A son, *Hardecanute*, was born to him.

This king also added Norway by conquest to Denmark and England; and, becoming religious as he became older, he governed with great justice and moderation, making no distinction between Dane and Saxon. He died, A. D. 1035, after having given Norway to *Sweyn*, his eldest son, and sent *Hardecanute* to secure Denmark³.

HAROLD HAREFOOT, his illegitimate son, aided by the Danish population, usurped the crown of England while *Hardecanute* was absent; and, though his brother's partisans compelled him to give up the southern counties, he soon recovered them⁴.

HARDECANUTE, when about to invade England, became

² He and his father *Elfric*, earl of *Mercia*, had been repeatedly guilty of treachery during the late reign.

³ In this reign lived the renowned *Elfric*, whose homilies were read by authority in the English churches. He was a strenuous opponent of the Romish doctrine of transubstantiation.

⁴ Edward and *Alfred*, the sons of *Ethelred*, had successively invaded England. But the former was obliged to retire; and the latter was betrayed by earl Godwin, and died of barbarous usage.

king on the death of Harefoot, A. D. 1040. He died suddenly, A. D. 1041, and the English, now free from the yoke of the northmen, who happened to be engaged in civil wars, placed *Edward*, a son of Ethelred and Emma, on the throne.

THE SAXON KINGS RESTORED.

- A. D. 1041. *Edward the Confessor*.
- 1051. Exile of earl Godwin.
- 1052. Earl Godwin returns.
- 1053. Earl Godwin dies. Griffith, prince of Wales, yielded up.
- 1054. Death of Macbeth.
- 1057. Death of Edward the Outlaw.
- 1065. Harold degrades Tostig.
- 1066. *Harold. Battles of Stamford-bridge and Hastings.*

EDWARD THE CONFESSOR was a mild, good prince ; but he had little energy, and he offended *Godwin*, the powerful earl of *Kent*, and many of the English, by his fondness for his kinsmen the Normans and their customs. Earl Godwin was forced to leave the kingdom ; yet he soon returned with his son *Harold*, and obliged Edward to yield to all his demands, A. D. 1052.

After the death of Godwin, Harold gained popularity by his victories over the Welsh, who at last were forced to send him the head of *Griffith*, their prince ; and he secretly aspired to the crown. The death of the heir presumptive, *Edward the Outlaw*⁵, whose child, *Edgar Atheling*, was but an infant, greatly favoured his design ; but the king, who died A. D. 1066, was thought to incline towards *William the Bastard*, his cousin, the duke of *Normandy*, who had once compelled Harold, when shipwrecked on his coast, to take an oath to support him.

⁵ Son of Edmund Ironside. He and his deceased brother *Edmund* had been sent out of England by Canute, and had been brought up in Hungary.

HAROLD on his accession was soon threatened by the hostile preparations of the duke of Normandy, and of his own brother *Tostig*, who had allied himself with his foes.

Tostig, whom Harold had lately deposed from the earldom of Northumberland⁶, on account of his tyranny, got the aid of *Harold Hardrada*, king of Norway, and landed at the mouth of the Humber. Though at first they had great success, they were defeated by Harold at Stamford-bridge, near York, and both of them slain, Sept. 1066.

In the mean time, William of Normandy, who had been detained by contrary winds, landed at Pevensey, in Sussex. Harold hastened down, and encountered him at Hastings, where, after an obstinate battle, of which the result was long doubtful, he was slain by an arrow, and the Saxons were routed, Oct. 1066⁷.

⁶ Tostig's predecessor, the heroic earl *Siward*, had with *Macduff*, earl of *Fife*, defeated *Macbeth*, the usurper of the Scottish crown, and restored his nephew, *Malcolm Kenmore*, the son of the murdered king *Duncan*.

⁷ SAXON CUSTOMS.—Among the Saxons, land was equally divided among the children, though entails were not unknown. Owing to bad husbandry and the inroads of the Danes, famines were common.

The population was divided into freemen and bondmen. The nobles (*eorle*), besides the royal family, consisted of the *ealdormen* or *earls* (the governors of shires), and the *thanes*, whose lands owed military service. Tradesmen, mechanics, and free husbandmen or *socmen*, were churls (*ceorle*).

England was governed by the laws of the West Saxons, the Mercians, and the Danes. These were in substance the same. All crimes, even murder, might be atoned for by a *weregild*, or fine; and owing to the ignorance of the judges, who knew not how to cross-examine, *ordeals* (such as the touching of red-hot iron as a proof of innocence) and *compurgators*, who swore that they believed the statement of the parties before the court, were employed at trials.

The kingdom was divided into *Shires*, and these into *Hundreds*. At the meetings of the Hundred, every freeman had to appear in arms once a year (hence in the north the Hundreds are called *Wapentakes*), and was obliged to prove his registry in some *tything*, or asso-

HOUSE OF NORMANDY.

WILLIAM I.

A. D. 1066. *William I.*

1067. The English begin to revolt.

1069. Danish Invasion. William ravages the north of England.

1070. The Saxon prelates deposed.

1071. Edwin killed. Morcar taken. Hereward submits.

1075. Rebellion of the Norman barons.

1076. Execution of Waltheof.

1087. Revolt of Robert. War with France.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, whose cause was favoured by the pope^a, was soon submitted to by the English, who wanted leaders, and had been of late much accustomed to

ciation of ten families. In these tythings, each householder, besides being surety for his fellows, was responsible for the conduct of his family, his slaves, and his guests. This served the purpose of a police.

In the court, or *mote*, of the Hundred, before the ealdorman, clergy, and freeholders of the district, offenders were tried on the presentment of the *Reeve* and the twelve oldest thanes; civil causes were decided; and contracts made. In important cases, and when the parties belonged to different hundreds, a court of *Lathe* (a union of neighbouring hundreds) or even of the *Trything* (the third part of the county, a "*Riding*") was held.

Causes which related to the Church or the Crown, and matters of weight, were decided in May and October, in the *Shire Mote*, in which the Bishop and the Earl jointly presided, and the *Shire-Reeve* (sheriff) and the chief thanes sat as assessors. The Sheriff had to arrest delinquents, and to collect the king's rents and fines. Appeals were made to the king's court, in which prelates and nobles sat.

At Christmas, Easter, Whitsuntide, and on extraordinary occasions, the great spiritual and temporal lords assembled in the *Witena-gemote* (meeting of the wise men), their consent being required for making laws.

^a Though William showed great firmness in opposing the encroachments of the pope, the influence of Rome was greatly increased in England by the Conquest.

usurpation and conquest. *Edwin* and *Morcar*, the earls of *Mercia* and *Northumbria*, declared for him; and even *Stigand*, the patriotic archbishop of *Canterbury*, found it advisable to go with *Edgar Atheling*⁹ to meet *William* and offer him the crown.

William's conduct at first was moderate. But the insolence of his Normans gave rise to a series of rebellions which he mercilessly punished¹:—in fact, he had almost to reconquer his new kingdom. Enraged at the welcome which *Sveno* and the Danish invaders met with in the north of England, A. D. 1069, he laid waste the whole country between the Humber and the Tees; so that by fire and sword, and cold and hunger, upwards of 100,000 people perished. Near Winchester, which was his chief residence, he also ruined a large tract of land, since called the New Forest, in order that he might enjoy the pleasures of the chase, to protect which he enacted his cruel Forest Laws².

With the help of the pope, he managed to depose *Stigand* and most of the Saxon prelates, A. D. 1070: he also encouraged the use of the French tongue, and would allow

⁹ *Edgar* afterwards fled to Scotland, where he found a refuge, and his sister *Margaret* married *Malcolm III*. The children of *Harold* fled to Ireland: like *Edgar Atheling*, they fruitlessly invaded England.

¹ *Edwin* and *Morcar* revolted, and were pardoned. But *William's* mistrust led him to try and seize them, A. D. 1071; on which, *Edwin* was killed as he was fleeing to Scotland, and *Morcar* took refuge with the Saxon hero *Hereward*, who held out in the isle of *Ely*. The outlaws were overpowered, and *Morcar* became a prisoner for life. The gallant *Hereward* escaped: he soon afterwards made a fair peace with the king.

² The penalty for killing a stag or a boar was loss of eyes. Game was then doubly valued, as being the only fresh meat to be had in winter: for the unskilful farmers, at a loss to find food for all their cattle at that season, killed and salted, about Michaelmas-tide, beasts enough to supply the demand till the summer.

no Englishman to hold any office of trust. Most of the land in England³ was confiscated, and granted to Normans to be held as FIEFS. But though he established the FEUDAL SYSTEM⁴ in his dominions, he checked the power of his barons by making their tenants swear allegiance to himself, instead of being only responsible, as on the continent, to their immediate lords⁵.

A dangerous revolt, however, broke out among these Norman nobles, when the earl of *Norfolk* had married the earl of *Hereford's* sister in spite of the king's prohibition, A. D. 1075. The rebels were overpowered; and, to the terror of the English, Siward's son *Waltheof*, the Saxon earl of *Northampton*, was beheaded at Winchester for having concealed a plot in which he had refused to join⁶.

William had also a war with his eldest son *Robert*, who had tried to make him give up Normandy, but for five years had been an exile, A. D. 1087⁷. He also invaded

³ He caused an exact account of the land to be made, which was called the *Domesday-book*.

⁴ When the barbarians settled in conquered districts, they allotted the land which they had seized among themselves, assigning a large share to their king. The king and the great nobles were in the habit of maintaining their servants or "*vassals*," by assigning them grants of land, called "*fiefs*," for their support. These fiefs soon became hereditary. They were, however, subject to certain burthens, and on failure of heirs reverted to the original lord, to whom they always owed military service. This was called the *feudal system*.

A number of vassals bound to serve them in the field made the great lords or barons troublesome to their neighbours, and dangerous to the crown. On the continent, where private warfare was allowed, many of the counts and dukes became independent princes.

⁵ William took care not to give several neighbouring estates and earldoms to one man, a practice which had been so dangerous to the power of the last Saxon kings; and, except in counties palatine, the king's courts overruled all feudal jurisdictions.

⁶ He was betrayed by his wife *Judith*, the Conqueror's niece.

⁷ Robert had begun the war when roused to fury by his brothers

the territories of *Philip I.*, the French king, who had instigated Robert, and had joked about his being fat. But while he was burning the town of Mante, his horse, stepping on some hot ashes, plunged, and he was bruised by the pommel of the saddle, an injury which caused his death. Normandy was inherited by Robert, and *William*, the Conqueror's younger son, was, by his father's wish, and the aid of archbishop *Lanfranc*, elected to the throne of England, Sept. 1087.

WILLIAM II.

A. D. 1087. *William II.*

1088. Revolt of Odo and the barons.

1091. William makes peace with Robert. War with Henry.

1093. Malcolm of Scotland killed at Alnwick.

1095. *Council of Clermont. First Crusade.* Anselm flees to Rome.

1097. Expedition into Scotland.

1100. William killed in the New Forest.

WILLIAM RUFUS, or *the Red*^a, took advantage of the hatred of the Saxons against the Normans, to put down an insurrection of his barons in favour of Robert^b, A. D. 1088. He afterwards invaded Normandy; but, at the suggestion of the barons, many of whom held lands under both brothers, it was agreed that there should be a peace, and that the surviving prince should inherit the other's terri-

William and Henry, who had emptied a pitcher of water on his head. When he now renewed it, the father and son fought together without knowing each other, and William was wounded in the hand, and his horse was killed. They were afterwards reconciled.

^a From his complexion: his hair was *flaxen*, and he was short and fat. Robert, who was also short, was called by his tall father, *Gambaron* and *Courthouse*, that is, Round and Short Legs.

^b It was stirred up by Odo, bishop of *Bayeux* and earl of *Kent*, the Conqueror's turbulent half-brother, who had just been released from prison.

tories, A. D. 1091. *Henry*, the Conqueror's youngest son, was offended at this, and withdrew to St. Michael's Mount, a lofty rock off the Norman coast: his brothers took up arms against him, and drove him into exile.

William was a tyrant to his subjects, both Saxon and Norman, and an oppressor of the clergy¹. He kept even the see of Canterbury vacant for years, until a severe illness alarmed his conscience, and he appointed *Anselm*, who, unable to agree with him long, was forced to flee to Rome, A. D. 1095. Either from policy or generosity, he asserted against their uncle *Donald Bane* the right of the children of Malcolm of Scotland, who had perished when invading Northumberland. An army was supplied to Edgar Atheling, and he succeeded in placing his nephew *Edgar* upon the Scottish throne, A. D. 1097.

During this reign it was that *Peter the Hermit*, a native of Picardy, who had been a soldier in his youth, indignant at the cruelty which the pilgrims to Christ's sepulchre at Jerusalem met with at the hands of the Turks, went throughout Europe to preach the duty of a holy war against the infidels. At the great council of Clermont, summoned by pope *Urban II.*, A. D. 1095, a CRUSADE² was proclaimed, which was joined by vast multitudes. After indescribable suffering and disasters, a brave remnant reached and conquered Jerusalem, which for some time became the seat of a Christian kingdom.

William was of course too selfish to feel any of the general enthusiasm; but Robert took the cross, and gave him Normandy in mortgage for 10,000 marks³. Similar offers were made by the count of *Guienne*. Before they

¹ He employed as minister the hateful *Ralph Flambard*, or the Firebrand, and made him bishop of Durham.

² The expedition was so named from the red cross which was sewn on the garments of each warrior.

³ The mark was two-thirds of a pound.

were accepted, William was found dead in the New Forest, where some unknown person had pierced him with an arrow while he was hunting, Aug. 1100⁴.

HENRY I.

A. D. 1100. *Henry I.* Charter of Liberties.

1101. Robert lands in England, but makes peace.

1106. Battle of Tenchebrai.

1119. Battle of Bretnville. Peace with France.

1120. Prince William drowned.

With suspicious readiness, prince HENRY, who was also hunting in the New Forest, seized the royal treasures at Winchester, and supplanted Robert, who was then returning from Jerusalem. To win over the Saxons to his side, he gave a charter of liberties, which he did not keep long; he recalled Anselm, with whom he afterwards quarrelled about INVESTITURE, or the right of nominating bishops and abbots, a dispute in which he gained the advantage; and he also married a princess of Saxon blood, *Matilda* of Scotland, whose mother Margaret was the sister of Edgar Atheling.

This learned⁵ and able, but wicked prince ruled with vigour; and he not only succeeded in making Robert desist from his attempt to recover England, but he afterwards defeated him at Tenchebrai, Sept. 1106, seized upon his misgoverned duchy, and kept him for twenty-eight years a prisoner at Cardiff castle. The French king, and the counts of *Anjou* and *Flanders*, took part with Robert's son⁶: but the valour and cunning of Henry prevailed. For he gained over the count of Anjou by marrying his son to the count's daughter, and defeated *Lewis VI.* and the

⁴ It was pretended that *Walter Tyrrel*, a French knight, had killed him by accident.

⁵ He was surnamed *Beaulere*, or the Fine Scholar.

⁶ *William*, who at length inherited the county of *Flanders* in right of his grandmother. He was killed the year after, A. D. 1128.

French knights at the chivalrous battle of Brenville near Andeli, A. D. 1119; and by the pope's mediation, peace was made in his favour. His prosperity, however, was clouded by the death of his only son *William*, who was drowned at sea, A. D. 1120⁷. He was never seen to smile again.

Foreseeing the opposition which would be made to a female reign, Henry twice made the barons take the oath of allegiance to his daughter, the empress *Matilda*⁸, then married to *Geoffrey Plantagenet*, the youthful count of Anjou. Yet when he died⁹, Dec. 1135, the throne was seized by *Stephen of Blois*, count of *Boulogne*¹, whose mother *Adela*, the countess of *Blois*, was the Conqueror's youngest daughter².

HOUSE OF BLOIS.

STEPHEN.

A. D. 1135. *Stephen*.

1138. *Battle of the Standard*.

1139. Matilda lands in England.

1141. *Battle of Lincoln*. Robert earl of Gloucester is taken prisoner, and exchanged for Stephen.

1146. Death of Robert. Matilda leaves England.

1153. Stephen adopts prince Henry as his successor.

Owing to the weakness of his right to the crown, STEPHEN had little authority over his barons, who built strong castles,

⁷ Owing to the carelessness of the drunken crew, the ship struck on a rock and foundered. The young prince got into a boat; but returned to save his illegitimate sister *Adela*, on which such numbers jumped in, that the boat went down.

⁸ Widow of *Henry V.*, emperor of Germany.

⁹ Henry, who was always a sensual and immoral man, shortened his life by eating lampreys when forbidden by his physicians.

¹ Stephen had the powerful support of *Henry*, bishop of *Winchester*, one of his elder brothers.

² In this reign, the celibacy of the clergy was enforced in a council held by the pope's unchaste legate, cardinal *John of Crema*, A. D. 1125.

and wasted the country by rapine and private wars. These robber chieftains would sally forth and seize upon any one who could give a ransom: their victims were thrown into dungeons, and often frightfully tortured.

During this confusion, Matilda's uncle, *David*, king of Scotland, invaded and plundered the northern counties. But at the instigation of the archbishop of York, the neighbouring barons united, and signally defeated him at Northallerton, Aug. 1138, a victory better known as the *Battle of the Standard*³.

Not long afterwards, Matilda herself, accompanied by *Robert*, earl of *Gloucester*, her illegitimate brother, landed in England⁴, which was soon wasted by famine and civil war. She was crowned at Winchester after the battle of Lincoln, in which Stephen was taken prisoner, Feb. 1141; but her haughtiness soon disgusted the nation. The earl of Gloucester was taken prisoner in his turn, and exchanged for Stephen, after which the war continued till the death of the earl made Matilda give up the contest, A. D. 1146.

At the close of Stephen's reign, A. D. 1153, it was revived by her son *Henry*, who was now master of Normandy, and had also gained Aquitaine by his marriage with *Eleanor*, the divorced queen of *Lewis VII.* of France. The death of *Eustace*, Stephen's eldest son, induced the latter to agree to a compromise, by which, after his decease, the crown was to revert to Henry. He died Nov. 1154.

³ So called from a high cross and standard raised by the English on a waggon.

⁴ Stephen had tried to take Robert by surprise; and he had offended the clergy and his own brother Henry, now papal legate, by seizing upon the bishops of *Salisbury* and *Lincoln*, and making them surrender their castles.

HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.

HENRY II.

A. D. 1154. *Henry II.*

1164. *Councils of Clarendon and Northampton.*

1170. Becket murdered.

1171. *Submission of the Irish.*

1173. Revolt of the king's sons.

1174. Battle of Alpwick.

1183. The princes again revolt ; prince Henry dies.

1189. Prince Richard joins the French. The king dies.

Either by marriage or inheritance, HENRY II. possessed, besides England, at least one-third of modern France ; and he also compelled Malcolm IV. of Scotland to give up the three northern counties for the earldom of Huntingdon. He put a stop to the late encroachments of the barons ; and that he might more easily control the overgrown power of the clergy ⁵, when the see of Canterbury was vacant ⁶, he forced upon them as primate *Thomas à Becket*, his chancellor.

⁵ The clergy had since the Conquest become independent of the civil courts, and they were tried by their own judges. As their canons forbade them to shed blood, degradation was often the heaviest punishment which the guilty received. This was, of course, injurious to the morality of the clergy themselves ; and what made matters worse, many worthless persons would enter into the inferior orders to screen themselves from justice, a sexton or an acolyte being as much privileged as the most dignified priests.

Moreover, when it became the custom to punish crimes by weregilds and fines, the Church likewise allowed the public penances to be compounded for by money, which was bestowed in charity, or even given to the clergy. This soon led to abuse, and penances were so multiplied that the ecclesiastical courts became a grievous nuisance.

⁶ The king had waited till archbishop *Theobald* was dead ; for he was under obligations to that prelate, who had refused to crown Stephen's son Eustace.

But Becket, though he had hitherto seemed to have been more of a soldier and sportsman than a priest, now lived the life of a mortified ascetic, and stood forth the determined champion of the privileges of his order. He was obliged, however, to agree to the CONSTITUTIONS of a council, or parliament, held at CLARENDON, Jan. 1164, which enacted that no baron should be excommunicated, nor any appeals made to Rome, without the king's consent; and that clergymen accused of crimes should be amenable to the common law courts⁷. This compliance he soon retracted, and so enraged Henry, that an attempt was made at the council of Northampton⁸ to ruin him by means of vindictive accusations. As a last resource, Becket took the silver cross from the hands of his cross-bearer, and boldly faced the king, who incautiously allowed one of the bishops to threaten him with an accusation of perjury before the pope's tribunal. Becket took him at his word, and appealed to the pope.

He then fled to France, whence, protected by Lewis VII., he excommunicated his enemies. After six years, Henry's firmness gave way, and he returned in triumph. One of his first acts was to suspend the bishops who in his absence had crowned *Henry*, the heir apparent; and when the news of this reached the king in Normandy, the angry monarch bemoaned his hard fate, that none of the cowards who ate his bread would rid him of his enemy. Four of his knights, hearing this, instantly set out for Canterbury; and there, after trying in vain by threats to shake the courage of the archbishop, they murdered him before an altar in his own cathedral, Dec. 1170. Becket was canonized, and his shrine was visited by pilgrims from every

⁷ On this occasion, Becket, who had behaved in a shuffling way, yielded to downright intimidation.

⁸ Oct. 1164. The king falsely accused Becket of malversation and peculation when chancellor.

part of Europe ; while the king not only submitted in his terror to prove his innocence before the pope's legates, but, when his troubles broke out, caused himself to be scourged by monks at Becket's grave.

The lordship of Ireland had been granted to Henry by *Adrian IV.* (Nicholas Brakespear), the only English pope ; but he had taken no steps to conquer it, until he authorized *Richard de Clare*, surnamed *Strongbow*, and a number of adventurers, to espouse the worthless cause of *Dermot*, king of Leinster⁹. He now crossed over with an army, and received the submission of the Irish princes, A. D. 1171. Except, however, in the counties near Dublin, the English rule was little more than nominal, until the days of the Tudor kings, whose deputies reduced the whole island¹.

Henry's latter years were embittered by repeated wars

⁹ Ireland was inhabited by Celts, who in the fifth century were converted by St. Patrick. Its monks were long renowned for their learning ; but the ravages of the Ostmen, or Scandinavian pirates, which began in the eighth century, and the badness of the Brehon Laws (so called from *the Brehons*, or Judges, who sat on turfen benches) brought the island into a state of barbarism.

The country was divided into five kingdoms. Next to the kings, were the chiefs of the Septs, or families, who succeeded by the law of *Tanistry*, the *Tanist*, or successor, being chosen in the chief's lifetime as the eldest and most worthy of his blood,—a most fertile source of quarrels ! Equally mischievous was the Irish custom of *gavel kind*, which was not, as elsewhere, an equal partition of an estate among all the children, but a re-division of all the land belonging to the Sept, when any of its members died.

As for Dermot, he had been driven out of Ireland for carrying off the willing wife of another prince.

¹ Dublin, Lowth, Kildare, and the Meaths, formed what was called the *English Pale*. In 1495, the lord deputy *Poynings* carried the famous statute of Drogheda, by which all the statutes passed in England before that year were to be held equally valid in Ireland. The Irish parliament, moreover, was only to deliberate on matters approved of by the king and his council.

with his own children, who were instigated by the queen, to whom he was an unfaithful husband², and aided by the kings of France and Scotland. The queen was imprisoned during the rest of his reign; *William the Lion*, the Scotch king, was surprised and taken prisoner at Alnwick, July, 1174, and agreed to become a vassal of England; prince *Henry*, his eldest son, in the height of a revolt, died of a fever in great remorse, June, 1183; *Geoffrey*, who had married *Constantia*, the heiress of Brittany, was trampled to death at a tournament; but *Richard*, supported by *Philip Augustus* now king of France, prevailed against his father, who was filled with grief and rage when he found that his favourite son *John* was a traitor. The shock brought on a fever, which put an end to his life, July, 1189³.

RICHARD I.

- A. D. 1189. *Richard I. Third Crusade.* Massacre of the Jews.
- 1190. Richard attacks Tancred of Sicily.
- 1191. Cyprus and Acre taken. Longchamp exiled.
- 1192. Truce with Saladin. Richard in captivity.
- 1193. The king of France invades Normandy.
- 1194. Richard is ransomed. Battle of Gisors.
- 1199. War with the viscount of Limoges. Richard slain at Chaluz.

RICHARD⁴, who showed some feeling at the sight of his father's corpse, took the cross, and, to raise money for the

² His mistress, Fair *Rosamond*, bore him *William Longword*, the valiant earl of *Salisbury*.

³ Henry was licentious, violent, and deceitful: faults which brought on him many of his troubles.

In his reign, England was divided into six circuits, and assizes instituted. This gave the English common law a uniformity not to be found in the local customs of France. The *assize of arms* also placed the militia of the kingdom on a regular footing, the judges being required to see that all freemen were properly armed.

⁴ Surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, or the Lion-hearted.

expedition, released the Scotch king from his vassalage. At the time of his coronation, numbers of Jews were massacred in London and other towns.

Richard joined Philip Augustus, who had also undertaken the third Crusade; but while they were on the way to the Holy Land, their friendship began to cool in Sicily, where Philip played a double-dealing part during the quarrel which Richard had with the usurper *Tancred*, on account of the rights of his sister *Jane*, the queen dowager⁵. When they reached Palestine, they found the Christian army before Acre, and *Saladin*, the mighty sultan who had lately taken Jerusalem⁶, attempting to raise the siege. The town surrendered, a host of men having first perished before it, July, 1191; and soon afterwards, Philip, jealous of the glory which Richard had gained, returned home. He took an oath, however, not to molest his rival's territories.

Richard defeated Saladin at a great battle near Azotus; but though he twice advanced towards Jerusalem, want of union among the Crusaders, the state of the weather, scarcity of food, and sickness among the troops, made him turn back. Having again defeated Saladin at Jaffa, he made a truce with the infidels for somewhat more than three years, and set out for England, where his presence was much needed, Oct. 1192⁷.

But he was driven by a storm upon the coast of Istria; and when he tried to go through Germany in disguise, he

⁵ Richard's engagement to *Adelais*, the sister of Philip, was broken, and at Cyprus (of which he had deposed and imprisoned the inhospitable sovereign) he married *Berengaria* of Navarre.

⁶ A. D. 1187. This was the cause of the third Crusade.

⁷ John and the barons had driven out of the kingdom the overbearing *William Longchamp*, bishop of Ely, his justiciary (the successor of the famous lawyer *Ranulf de Glanville*, who had taken the cross), A. D. 1191.

was seized near Vienna by *Leopold*, duke of *Austria*, his enemy², who sold him to the emperor *Henry VI.*, by whom he was thrown into the dungeon of a castle in the Tyrol. Henry was the rightful heir to Sicily, and he had been enraged at the league which the English king had agreed to make with Tancred.

The misfortunes of Richard would have ensured the success of the treasonable designs of his brother John, whose ally, the perjured king of France, invaded Normandy, had not the pope and the English been firm in his cause³. The emperor was obliged to produce him before a diet of the empire, and to release him on the payment of a heavy ransom, which was levied on the clergy and people of England, A. D. 1194.

Richard, after his return, reduced John to submission, and engaged in an indecisive war with the French king, whom he defeated at Gisors. His rapacity, with which, as well as with pride and cruelty, his generous character was deeply stained, led him also into a quarrel with the viscount of *Limoges* about a claim of treasure-trove¹; and while besieging the castle of Chaluz, he was mortally wounded by an archer, whom the threat of hanging all the garrison had made desperate, March, 1199. He named John to be his successor².

² Leopold was brother-in-law of the deposed monarch of Cyprus, and Richard had insulted him besides at Acre by pulling down his banner.

³ Longchamp discovered the place of his confinement.

¹ Either the sovereign, or the lord of the soil, laid claim to all discovered treasures.

² In the latter years of this reign, the peace of London was disturbed by *William Fitz Osbert* or *Longbeard*, who stood forth as the champion of the poor, whom he associated against the rich. He was seized and hanged.

JOHN.

A. D. 1199. *John*. War with France (ends 1200).

1201. John marries Isabel of Angoulême.

1202. War with France. Arthur taken prisoner.

1203. Murder of Arthur. John's French fiefs forfeited.

1205. The see of Canterbury vacant.

1207. Election of Langton.

1208. *Interdict*.

1212. The pope declares John deposed.

1213. John's submission to the pope. Destruction of the French ships at Damme.

1214. Battle of Bouvines. Truce with France.

1215. *Magna Charta*. John revenges himself on the barons.

1216. The Scotch chastised. Lewis, of France, lands in England. Loss of John's baggage in the Wash.

According to the old custom of England, JOHN³ was elected to the throne on account of the youth of *Arthur*, duke of *Brittany*, the son of Geoffrey, his eldest brother. Philip Augustus asserted the claims of Arthur in France; but the offer of advantageous terms of peace completely gained him over, May, 1200.

But when John⁴ married *Isabella* of Angoulême, the count of *Marche*, to whom she was affianced, complained to Philip; and a war ensued, during which Arthur, when besieging his grandmother Eleanor at Mirabeau in Poitou, fell into the hands of John, Aug. 1202, and was secretly murdered some months afterwards. Though Arthur was a vassal of Normandy, and not of France, Philip summoned John before his peers, to answer for this crime, and on his refusal, declared all his fiefs to be forfeited, A. D. 1203. John showed little spirit in defending his rights, nor would

³ Surnamed *Lackland*. He was not old enough to have a fief when his father died.

⁴ After divorcing *Isabel*, heiress to the earldom of *Gloucester*, his first wife.

the English give any hearty support to such a dastard ; and thus his able opponent easily re-united Normandy, Maine, and Anjou, to the French crown.

John's next disgrace arose from the old dispute between the monks of Canterbury and the bishops of the province about the right of electing the archbishop. Some of the younger monks had irregularly elected *Reginald*, their sub-prior, to the vacant see ; but the older monks thought it prudent to have a fresh election, and at the king's recommendation, *John de Gray*, bishop of *Norwich*, one of the justiciaries, was chosen, A. D. 1205. Against these proceedings, the bishops appealed to *Innocent III.*, one of the most ambitious of the popes. Innocent decided for the claims of the monks⁵, but induced their delegates in Italy to make choice of cardinal *Stephen Langton*, a learned Englishman.

When the news reached the king, he was filled with rage ; and he behaved with such violence, that no one cared to support his cause. The pope retaliated by laying England under an INTERDICT⁶, March, 1208 ; and at length absolved John's subjects from their allegiance, and gave his crown to the king of France, who made great preparations to secure it. In the mean time, *Pandulph*, his artful legate, went to Dover, and so worked upon John's fears, that he agreed to surrender his crown, and to receive back his kingdom as a tributary fief from the Romish see, May, 1213⁷.

⁵ It was always the policy of the popes to weaken the power of the bishops, and to make themselves the only masters of the church.

⁶ All divine service was suspended, except marriages and churchings (which were celebrated in the porch), and the administration of the sacraments to the dying. Sermons were preached in the churchyard ; but the churches, which were usually kept open, were shut, and the sound of a bell was never heard. The dead were buried, like dogs, in unhallowed ground.

⁷ King Edward III. refused to pay the yearly tribute any longer, A. D. 1366.

Pandulph now crossed over to Boulogne, and commanded Philip not to touch the territory of the holy see. Philip refused to comply ; but the count of *Flanders*⁸ and others of his vassals would not follow him, and most of his ships were destroyed by the English under *William Longsword*, earl of *Salisbury*, at Damme. The year after, they and their allies, the counts of *Flanders* and *Boulogne*, and *Otho IV.* of Germany, John's nephew, were beaten by Philip at the great battle of Bouvines, July, 1214⁹. The war was then concluded by a truce.

The weakness, tyranny, and insolence of John, had, by this time, so provoked the barons, that cardinal Langton, in defiance of the pope himself, easily formed them into a league, to claim the rights which had been granted in the charter of Henry I. John tried to evade their demands ; on which they took up arms, chose Robert *Fitz Walter* for their leader, and seized London. He now became so alarmed, that at a conference between Windsor and Staines, at Runnymede, he signed the *MAGNA CHARTA*¹, which is the groundwork of English freedom, June, 1215.

⁸ The Flemings, who worked the English wool into cloth, and were never very faithful vassals of France, were the staunch allies of England in the middle ages.

⁹ Longsword, the English commander, and the two counts were taken prisoners. The count of Flanders was kept in a dungeon all the rest of Philip's reign.

¹ *MAGNA CHARTA* secured to the Church her liberties, and protected the subject by putting limits to many of the feudal claims and other exactions of the sovereign. Except to ransom the king, to marry his eldest daughter, or make his eldest son a knight, no money was to be levied from his vassals without the consent of the great council of all the tenants-in-chief of the crown. The court of Common Pleas (in which both parties are subjects) was no longer to follow the king's person ; and two justices of assize were to be regularly sent into every county. Justice was not to be sold : no man was to be imprisoned but by the judgment of his peers and the law of the land ; and excessive fines were forbidden. The rights of cities and boroughs

But the king was not to be trusted. He got the pope to absolve him from his oaths, and to threaten his opponents with excommunication, a sentence which Langton refused to enforce. He also hired a number of lawless foreign mercenaries, and so completely overpowered the barons, and their ally the Scotch king², that they were forced to invite *Lewis*, the crown prince of France³, to become their sovereign. Lewis landed with an army, and was well received; but he wanted vigour, and always favoured his own countrymen. The scale therefore was again turning in John's favour, when, as his army was crossing the Wash, soon after taking Lincoln, he lost his baggage and treasure, which were swept away by the tide. Grief, and a surfeit of peaches and new ale, brought on a fever of which he died, Oct. 1216, leaving his son *Henry*, a boy of ten years old, to succeed him.

HENRY III.

A.D. 1216. *Henry III.* Charter confirmed.

1217. Fair of Lincoln. Defeat of Eustace le Moine. Lewis leaves England. *Charta de Foresta.*

1224. Lewis VIII. takes Poitou.

were likewise secured; and all orderly subjects and strangers might freely inhabit, travel in, or quit the realm, except in time of war. The abuses of the Forest Laws were to be amended, and the late encroachments given up. All the tenants-in-chief were to grant the same privileges to their own vassals. Slaves, however, gained no rights.—Twenty-five barons were appointed Conservators of the Charter, who, if the king was false, might arm the nation against him.

The Charter was, of course, often evaded by the English kings: it required thirty-eight ratifications to give it the force of law.

² Weak as John was, he had always kept down the Scotch, Welsh, and Irish. He now revenged the inroad of *Alexander II.* by burning Haddington, Dunbar, and Berwick.

³ Afterwards *Lewis VIII.* He had married *Blanche of Castile*, a grand-daughter of Henry II.

- A.D. 1232. Hubert de Burgh disgraced.
 1242. Expedition against Lewis IX.
 1258. Provisions of Oxford.
 1264. *Battle and Mise of Lewis.*
 1265. *Borough deputies sit in Parliament. Battle of Evesham.*
 1270. *The last Crusade.*

Under the wise guardianship of *William, earl of Pembroke*, the earl marshal, the young king confirmed the great charter⁴. The cause of Lewis daily declined, and after the route of his partisans at Lincoln⁵, and the great defeat of his fleet by *Hubert de Burgh*, the justiciary, he consented to leave the kingdom, Sept. 1217. Pembroke died about two years afterwards; and Hubert and *Peter des Roches*, bishop of *Winchester*, an artful Potevin, who were deadly enemies, succeeded to his power. The justiciary prevailed over his rival, but was at last disgraced, A. D. 1232.

HENRY, as he grew older, proved to be a weak prince. He was drawn into ill-managed wars with France, which cost him Poitou; and Guienne would likewise have been lost, but for the moderation of *Lewis IX.*⁶ He outraged his people by his foolish fondness for foreigners, particularly the countrymen of his wife, *Eleanour of Provence*, and by the manner in which he abetted the intolerable exactions

⁴ This was an abridged copy. The next year, when the charter was again confirmed, the clauses relating to the Forests were taken out, and embodied in the *Charta de Foresta*.

⁵ This was called the Fair of Lincoln, the castle of which was besieged by the count of *Perche* and the insurgents, May, 1217. The French fleet was commanded by *Eustace le Moine*, a noted pirate. He was beheaded, Aug. 1217.

⁶ More generally known as St. Lewis. Henry was led into his last expedition by his father-in-law, the count of *Marche*, who had married his old love Isabella, John's widow. The conscientious Lewis would have given back even Normandy, if his barons had not prevented him.

of the pope⁷. And when he got money from his subjects, he would confirm the charters, and swear to dismiss the foreigners, and to redress grievances, but never kept his word.

At length, when the people were irritated by a scarcity of food, the barons, headed by a foreigner, *Simon de Montfort*, earl of *Leicester*⁸, who had married Henry's sister, appeared in arms in the parliament at Westminster, and obliged him to agree to entrust the royal power to a commission of prelates and barons, who were to reform abuses. By the PROVISIONS OF OXFORD, where the parliament had re-assembled, a council of fifteen persons was appointed, June, 1258⁹, and more than two years elapsed before Henry could regain his authority.

Leicester's opposition still continuing, both parties swore to abide by the decision of St. Lewis. He annulled the Provisions: on which Leicester took up arms, and at the battle of Lewes took Henry and his brother *Richard*¹ prisoners, May, 1264. By a treaty, called the MISE OF LEWES, it was now agreed that their eldest sons *Edward* and *Henry* should be surrendered as hostages, and that the

⁷ Besides the heavy exactions of the clergy, there was the grievance of *papal provisions*, by which the rights of patrons were suspended, and the church livings given to non-resident Italians. (The king himself gave more than 700 livings to his chaplain *Mansel*.) *Robert Grosseteste*, bishop of *Lincoln*, distinguished himself by his opposition to the encroachments of the Romish See.

⁸ The younger son of *Simon*, count of *Montfort*, a name equally famous in French history. He had inherited the estates of *Amicia de Beaumont*, co-heiress of *Leicester*, who had married into the Montfort family.

⁹ The parliament of Oxford was called the "*Mad Parliament*."

¹ Richard, earl of Cornwall, who was king of the Romans (emperor elect of Germany), but never had much power in Germany. His son Henry, who afterwards took the cross, was murdered in a church in Italy by his outlawed cousins, *Simon* and *Guy*, the sons of Leicester.

king should delegate his authority to Leicester and a council of his faction. The next year, Leicester called a parliament of the barons of his party ; and, to strengthen himself, he summoned for the first time, besides the county members, deputies from the boroughs.

Gilbert de Clare, earl of *Gloucester*, one of Leicester's colleagues, having become suspicious of him, enabled prince Edward to escape from Hereford. The prince's party gathered around him, and on the bloody field of Evesham, where no quarter was given, the rebel barons were routed, and Leicester fell, Aug. 1265².

Edward, after having restored order by his arms and his moderation, went and joined St. Lewis in the last Crusade. When he arrived at Tunis, Nov. 1270, he found that Lewis was dead, and that the French had given up the undertaking. Notwithstanding this, he sailed to the Holy Land with one thousand men, and recovered Nazareth. He suffered however from the climate, and was wounded by the poisoned dagger of an assassin ; soon after which the news of his father's declining health recalled him home. Before he returned, Henry died, Nov. 1272.

In this reign, the influence of the Church caused ordeals to be abolished, and thus trial by jury, which began about the time of Henry I., became general³. The clergy, how-

² His son Henry was also killed. The rebels put the old king in the front of the battle, and he had a narrow escape.—Leicester's earldoms and estates were given to Edmund Crouchback, the king's second son, whence arose the dangerous power of the earls and dukes of Lancaster.

³ Ever since compurgation had fallen into disuse in Henry I.'s reign, accused persons might, but as yet only if they paid for it, be put upon their trial "*by the country*," that is, before a jury. Until the present century, no law obliged a man to be thus tried ; and if any one refused to plead, the judges would send him back to prison, where he was pressed with heavy weights until he yielded or died.—*Trial by battle* might be declined in civil pleas from the reign of Henry II.

ever, failed in an attempt to substitute the civil for the common law⁴; and as their canons had forbidden them of late to have any thing to do with the latter, the administration of justice fell into the hands of laymen, who delighted in controlling the ecclesiastical courts by issuing writs of prohibition, and in limiting benefit of clergy⁵.

EDWARD I.

A. D. 1272. *Edward I.*

- 1282. *Death of Llewellyn. Conquest of Wales.*
- 1283. Execution of David.
- 1284. Edward prince of Wales born.
- 1290. Expulsion of the Jews. *Competition of Baliol and Bruce.*
- 1291. The Scots submit to Edward at Norham.
- 1292. John Baliol made king of Scotland.
- 1294. Loss of Guienne.
- 1295. *House of Commons.*
- 1296. *Battle of Dunbar. Baliol deposed.*
- 1297. The clergy outlawed. The Scots revolt. Capitulation of Irvine; *Battle of Stirling. The Charters confirmed.*
- 1298. *Battle of Falkirk.*
- 1303. The French give back Guienne. Scotland is invaded.
- 1304. Scotland conquered.
- 1305. Stirling is taken. Wallace is executed.
- 1306. Murder of Comyn. Bruce revolts. Battle of Methuen.
- 1307. Bruce returns. Edward dies.

EDWARD I.⁶ turned his arms against the Welsh, a people who were ever making incursions into England, and giving aid and shelter to the disaffected.

⁴ When in the council of Merton, A. D. 1236, it was proposed to legitimise children born before the marriage of their parents (as was done by the *civil law*), the earls and barons answered, *Nolumus leges Angliæ mutari, quæ usitate sunt et approbata.*

⁵ *Benefit of Clergy* was the exemption from punishment which the clergy often had. In some cases, it was extended to all who could read. Peerage gives similar privileges.

⁶ Surnamed *Longshanks.*

Llewellyn, their prince, was surprised and killed by an English knight, just before his army was defeated on the banks of the Wye, by *Edmund Mortimer*, Dec. 1282; and they were soon conquered. Edward caused *Llewellyn's* worthless brother *David* to be hanged, drawn, and quartered as a traitor; but, to conciliate his new subjects, he created his son *Edward*, who was born at Caernarvon castle, prince of Wales, April, 1284.

The death of *Margaret of Norway*⁷, the infant granddaughter and heiress of *Alexander III.* of Scotland, Oct. 1290, now gave rise to several claims to the Scottish crown. The two whose rights were the most specious, were *John Baliol*, grandson of *Margaret*, the eldest daughter of *David*, earl of *Huntingdon*⁸, and *Robert Bruce*, son of *Isabella*, the second daughter. It was then doubtful, whether the head of the eldest remaining branch, or the person least removed from the common stock, had the best title⁹.

Edward was called in to be umpire of this dispute; and he took advantage of the eagerness of the contending parties, to get the estates of Scotland to meet him at *Norham*, on his own side of the *Tweed*, and to make the fullest acknowledgment of his unfounded claims to feudal superiority over them, June, 1291. He then referred the question to a united parliament of both kingdoms, which decided in favour of *Baliol*¹.

⁷ The "*Maid of Norway*," as she was called, was engaged to Edward's eldest son.

⁸ Grandson of *David I.* of Scotland.

⁹ It was also a question, whether *Bruce*, being a male, had not a better claim than *Baliol's* mother, *Devorgild*, who had resigned her rights to her son.

¹ By this decision, the succession to the English crown was made to depend on primogeniture.

A selfish proposal of *Bruce*, to dismember Scotland and divide it among the claimants, was then rejected.

A contest having arisen between the seamen of France and England, in which the former were signally beaten², *Philip the Fair*, who longed to confiscate Guienne, summoned Edward to answer for the conduct of some of his Gascon subjects. *Edmund Crouchback*, earl of Lancaster, the king's brother, was sent to negotiate, whom Philip outwitted by a false promise, that, if Guienne were surrendered for forty days, his injured honour would be satisfied, A. D. 1294.

To prevent Edward from recovering it, the French king made a league with Baliol, who was impatient at being treated as a vassal. On this, Edward laid siege to Berwick, and sent earl *Warrenne* to attack the castle of Dunbar. The Scotch hastened to relieve the fortress; but they were beaten, April, 1296. Baliol in a few months was forced to resign his crown, and the whole country was quickly subdued³.

The oppressive rule of the English soon kindled a revolt. *William Wallace*, a private gentleman who had been outlawed for a murder, boldly stood forth as the champion of his country, and was joined by several men of rank. They shamefully capitulated at Irvine: yet Wallace held out, and, about two months afterwards, fell upon Warrenne, at Stirling, when he had foolishly divided his force by

² A Norman having been killed in a quarrel between some English and Norman sailors who were filling their water-casks on the French coast, the Normans, in retaliation, boarded the first English ship they met, and taking out a passenger, hanged him from the mast-head, with a dog at his heels. This unlicensed warfare continued, and a challenge was at length given, in consequence of which the ships of both nations assembled, and after a bloody battle in which no quarter was given, 240 French prizes were taken in triumph to England, April, 1293.

³ All ranks were made to do homage to the conqueror, who carried off the Scottish regalia, and the stone on which the kings were crowned.

crossing the Forth over a narrow bridge, Sept. 1297; drove him out of Scotland; and was recognized by the people as guardian of the kingdom. But he again became an outlaw the year after, when the king returned from France, and routed his army at Falkirk, July, 1298. As the state of Edward's affairs did not allow him to pursue his advantage, the Scotch still remained independent, being ruled, not by Wallace, but by a regency of their worthless nobles.

For, besides this revolt, and another in Wales, the wars with France for Guienne, and the expense of subsidizing the Flemings, his allies, had greatly weakened him. Though he got a large supply from a parliament held A. D. 1295, *from which time the House of Commons in its present form dates its origin*, his wants led him to extort vast sums from the clergy⁴, and to impose illegal taxes on his people. He was stoutly opposed by *Winchelsey*, the noble-minded archbishop of Canterbury, and by the constable and marshal, *Humphrey Bohun*, earl of Hereford, and *Roger Bigod*, earl of Norfolk. The two last refused to command his armies abroad⁵, and, while he was engaged in Flanders, went with their followers to the exchequer, and in the name of the barons of England forbade the levying of these exactions, Aug. 1297. As they were supported by the clergy and by the citizens of London, the government at home gave way; and Edward himself, who tried to evade his promises, was repeatedly forced to sign the famous

⁴ He once bullied them out of half their income, A. D. 1294; and he so often repeated his demands for money, that they sought the protection of pope *Boniface VIII.* But Edward outlawed the whole body of the clergy, Feb. 1297, and they had to pay a heavy fine before their lands and goods were restored.

⁵ They asserted that their offices only bound them to attend on the king's person. "By the everlasting God, sir earl," said Edward to the marshal, "you shall go or hang." "By the everlasting God, sir king," answered Bigod, "I will neither go nor hang."

CONFIRMATION OF THE CHARTERS, and the statute "*de tallagio*⁶ *non concedendo*," which declared it unlawful for the king to raise money without the consent of parliament.

When, however, the Flemings, whom the French had conquered during the war, rose against their masters, and defeated them with great slaughter at Courtrai, Philip the Fair was glad to secure the neutrality of England by restoring Guienne, and abandoning the Scots, May, 1303. Edward was now free to overrun Scotland; and the whole nation, except Wallace⁷, laid down their arms and their freedom, Feb. 1304. This bold outlaw was surprised by Sir *John Menteith*; and, though he had never sworn fealty to the English king, he was condemned to die as a traitor.

But a fresh revolt broke out when the younger *Robert Bruce*⁸, after having murdered, in a church at Dumfries (whither he had invited him to a conference), *John Comyn*, Baliol's nephew, who had a better claim to the throne than himself, summoned the Scots to his standard, and was crowned at Scone, March, 1306. Though defeated in June at Methuen by *Aymar de Valence*, earl of *Pembroke*, and driven at last to take refuge on the north coast of Ireland, he was able to renew the contest in the spring; on which, Edward, who had treated all the rebels who had fallen into his hands with ruthless severity, determined to crush him at once. But sickness detained him at Carlisle; and when he again advanced, he died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, within sight of that land which nothing but his death could save, July, 1307⁹.

⁶ The contributions of the vassals of the crown were called *aids*; those which were levied from the towns were called *tallages*.

⁷ Stirling Castle still held out; but it was taken the next year.

⁸ The grandson of the Robert Bruce who had claimed the crown.

⁹ During his reign, A. D. 1290, the Jews were cruelly banished from England, to which they did not return till invited by Oliver

EDWARD II.

- A. D. 1307. *Edward II.* Piers Gaveston.
 1310. The lords ordainers appointed.
 1311. Edward signs the ordinances.
 1312. Death of Gaveston.
 1314. *Battle of Bannockburn.*
 1318. Edward Bruce slain in Ireland.
 1321. The Spencers banished. They return.
 1322. Lancaster beheaded. The ordinances revised.
 1324. The king of France invades Guienne.
 1326. Return of the queen and Mortimer.
 1327. Edward II. abdicates, and is murdered.

EDWARD II. recalled *Piers de Gaveston*, his witty and accomplished favourite, whom his father had banished, and

Cromwell. His skill, however, in government and legislation was so great, that he has been called *the English Justinian*. He defined the jurisdiction of the different courts; forbade the creation of new manors; restrained the acquisition of lands in *mortmain*, that is, by the clergy and other corporate bodies; established the practice of entailing estates; checked the encroachments of the ecclesiastical lawyers: and in his famous statute of Winchester, he laid the foundation of the institution of justices of the peace.

ORIGIN OF PARLIAMENT.—After the conquest, the great council of the nation for making laws and granting taxes, consisted of the bishops, chief abbots, and all who were *barons*, or tenants-in-chief of the crown. It became customary to summon the great church dignitaries, and the earls—there were no dukes till Edward III.'s reign—and principal barons, by personal writs: the inferior landholders were convoked by a general writ, which was sent to the sheriff of the county.

These lesser barons were irregular in their attendance at this council, and by degrees from peers they sank into mere freeholders. A practice, however, arose of summoning several of them from every county whenever inquiries were made into the state of the realm; and at length each county sent two knights to parliament as the representatives of the whole body.

Under the later Norman kings, the towns had risen into importance, and it daily became more difficult to tax them without their

loaded him with honours. The haughtiness of this young Gascon was more than the turbulent barons would brook, and he was twice driven into exile¹. The king was also forced to sign the *ordinances* drawn up by a committee called the lords ordainers, which greatly abridged his power, Oct. 1311. But he quickly broke his oaths, and restored Gaveston; on which the barons, headed by *Thomas, earl of Lancaster*², took up arms, and Gaveston fell into their power, and was beheaded³.

consent. Edward I. therefore followed the example set by the earl of Leicester, and summoned citizens and burgesses to parliament. These, with the knights of the shires, were eventually separated from the rest of the council, and in the year 1395 the House of Commons may be considered to have been established.

To grant money, and to petition for redress of grievances, was at first the whole business of the Commons: they were not consulted on matters of state, and they were often dismissed before the rest of the parliament. The control of the public purse gradually increased their importance; especially as it became the custom that grants of money should originate with them, and be unalterable by the peers. The dispensing power of the crown was often successfully resisted; and the practice arose of making private acts when individuals wanted a modification of the laws in their behalf, and also (in Henry VI.'s reign) of presenting bills instead of mere petitions for the enactment of a statute. The members had the privileges of freedom from arrest and liberty of speech.

The inferior clergy were also summoned to parliament; but, as they were little affected by the usual grievances, they soon obtained leave to attend only in their provincial convocations, where they taxed themselves. In the reign of Charles II., when indirect taxes became common, they found this last privilege to be a burthen, and tacitly gave it up. They were henceforth allowed to vote at elections.

¹ To the amazement of every one, the banished favourite was made lieutenant of Ireland, where his government was brilliant. Gaveston was also earl of *Cornwall*, and married to the king's niece.

² Son of Edmund Crouchback, and cousin to the king.

³ Gaveston was promised his safety by the earl of *Pembroke*; but the earl of *Warwick*, who had been called a "black dog" by him, and

During these wretched contests, Bruce regained most of the fortresses in Scotland ; and when at last the weak English king marched to save Stirling, Lancaster and many others would not follow. Owing to the skill and energy of Bruce, Edward's army was routed at Bannockburn, June, 1314, and Scotland saved. The Bruces went over to Ireland to give help to the natives there ; but their efforts ended in the defeat and death of *Edward*, earl of *Carrick*, Robert's brother, Oct. 1318.

For three years, England suffered from bad harvests, sickness, and the ravages of the Scots, who were always supported by the treachery of Lancaster and his party. These last afterwards prosecuted *Hugh de Spenser*, the new favourite, and the earl of *Winchester*, his aged father, and banished them for life, the king and parliament being forced to submit to their dictation, Aug. 1321.

An insult offered the queen⁴, about two months afterwards, by the wife of one of the barons, caused such general indignation, that many rose for the king, and the Spensers returned. Lancaster now openly treated with the Scots ; but, on his way to the north, his friend the earl of *Hereford* was killed, and he himself taken prisoner at Borough-bridge by the royalists, March, 1322. He was led to Pomfret castle, his own stronghold, and there he was condemned by the king and a council of nobles to be beheaded. The ordinances were now revised by a parliament at York, and it was enacted that no similar provisions should henceforth be valid.

Edward now invaded Scotland, and advanced as far as

had sworn that he would make him feel his teeth, carried him off to Warwick castle. There it was determined by a council of chiefs that he should die on Blacklow hill, hence called Gaversike.

⁴ *Isabella of France*, the daughter of Philip the Fair. Lady *Badlesmere* would not admit her for the night into the royal castle of Ledes when on her way to Canterbury.

the Forth. But the Scotch kept at a distance, wasting the country before them, and he was obliged to retire for want of provisions.

A quarrel with France having arisen about Guienne⁵, *Isabella*, the English queen, went over to negotiate with her brother, *Charles the Fair*. While abroad, this wicked woman became attached to the rebel exile *Roger Mortimer*, and was induced to make war against her husband. She accordingly landed in England with about 2000 men, Sept. 1326, and was joined by the king's brothers, and by many of Lancaster's old party. Edward fled to Wales, where he surrendered himself; his incorruptible minister, *Walter de Stapledon*, bishop of Exeter, was murdered by the London citizens; and the two Spencers fell successively into the power of the conquering faction, and were barbarously executed.

The unfortunate king was not only deposed, but also forced at last to resign his crown to his son *Edward*, Jan. 1327. Attempts were made for several months to destroy either his reason or his life by ill-usage; and when these failed, he was horribly murdered at Berkeley castle, the place of his last confinement, Sept. 1327.

EDWARD III.

- A. D. 1327. *Edward III.* Peace with Scotland.
- 1328. Philip of Valois, king of France.
- 1330. The earl of Kent beheaded. Fall of Mortimer.
- 1332. Edward Baliol invades Scotland.
- 1333. *Battle of Halidon hill*; Flight of David II.
- 1339. *War with France.*
- 1340. Sea-fight at Sluys.
- 1341. Return of David II. Case of Archbishop Stratford.
- 1342. Expedition to Brittany.

⁵ The French king had invaded Guienne, on pretence that homage had not been done for it.

- A. D. 1345. War renewed. The Siege of Auberoche raised.
 1346. *Battles of Cressy and Durham.*
 1347. Calais taken.
 1348. The "Black Death" visits England.
 1350. John II. king of France.
 1356. Burnt Candlemas. *Battle of Poitiers.*
 1360. *Peace of Breigny.*
 1364. Battle of Auray. John II. dies.
 1367. *Battle of Navarette.*
 1369. War with France renewed.
 1370. Massacre at Limoges.
 1372. The English fleet defeated at Rochelle.
 1375. Truce with France.
 1376. The Good Parliament ; the Black Prince dies.
 1377. Lancaster protects Wycliffe.

Young EDWARD at his accession, found himself under the regency of Mortimer, now earl of March, who concluded an inglorious peace with Scotland, behaved with overbearing insolence, and brought *Edmund*, earl of *Kent*, the late king's brother, to the scaffold⁶. But when four years were nearly ended, with the aid of Lord *Montacute*, he seized upon Mortimer one night at Nottingham castle, and became his own master, Oct. 1330. Mortimer was impeached and hanged ; the queen retired for the rest of her life to Castle Rising.

Robert Bruce having lately died, *Beaumont* and *Wake*, and other English lords whose lands in Scotland had not been restored to them, induced *Edward Baliol*, the son of John Baliol, to claim the Scottish crown. Baliol, after

⁶ The earl seems to have been inveigled by Mortimer (who had already humbled *Henry*, earl of *Lancaster*, for having dared to withstand him) into a plot to restore the late king, whom some believed to be alive. He was arrested and condemned at a parliament at Winchester, March, 1330 ; and, though haughty and unpopular, he had to wait four hours before an executioner could be found to behead him.

making a bold but unsuccessful attempt⁷, got the English king to declare openly for him by promising to become his vassal; Edward laid siege to Berwick, and, when the Scotch came to its relief, he gained a signal victory at Halidon hill, their leader, sir *Archibald Douglas*, the regent for the boy *David II.*, being among the slain, July, 1333. David took refuge in France, and Baliol was enthroned by the English at Edinburgh. But the new king was not popular; and, when the attention of his allies was engaged in foreign wars, he lost ground, and David at length returned, March, 1341.

For Edward's views had been turned from Scotland to France by the following circumstances. *Jane*⁸, the daughter of *Lewis X.*⁹ (son of his maternal grandfather Philip the Fair), had been set aside by her uncle *Philip the Long*, on pretence of a *Salic Law* by which no female could inherit the crown. Neither Philip V. nor his brother Charles IV., the Fair, left any sons, and their cousin *Philip*, count of *Valois*, became king of France, A. D. 1328. When this happened, Edward thought of claiming the French crown, on pretence that the male child of a daughter was not to be excluded, if born when the grandfather was still living. Yet, when he was summoned by Philip to do homage for Guienne, he obeyed, and gave up a claim, which he soon had the folly to revive, being irritated by the support which had been given to the Scotch, and

⁷ With a small force of 3000 English, raised in the northern counties, he surprised and defeated, at Glasmere near Duplin, more than 30,000 men under the earl of *Marre*, the regent of Scotland, who fell in the battle, Aug. 1332. After foiling the attempts of another large army by seizing Perth, he was crowned at Scone, and his enemies were glad to negotiate. But, before the end of the year, he was treacherously surprised at Annan during the armistice, and escaped alone to England.

⁸ Afterwards queen of Navarre in her own right.

⁹ He died A. D. 1316.

urged on, it is said, by *Robert of Artois*, a discontented exile.

He then allied himself, A. D. 1337, with the emperor *Lewis of Bavaria*, and other princes, and also with the Flemish cities which had revolted from their count, and were ruled by a stern demagogue, *Jacob van Arteveldt*, the brewer of Ghent. But when he at length took up arms, A. D. 1339, these were of little use to him, and after a fruitless campaign he returned home in debt¹. The year after, on Midsummer day, he gained a great victory at sea, over a vast fleet of French and Genoese stationed at Sluys to prevent his landing; but owing to the cautious policy of Philip, who treated with scorn a challenge of his as coming from a rebellious vassal, he had no further success². He was more fortunate in the aid which he gave to the count of *Montfort*, who claimed the duchy of Brittany in opposition to *Charles of Blois*, the kinsman of the French king³. The count died during the struggle; but his son, with the assistance of the English, at last defeated

¹ The parliament granted him a toll upon wool, then (as well as hides, leather, lead, and tin) the staple commodity of England.

² After making a truce, he returned home, and threw the blame on his ministers. Archbishop *Stratford*, the president of the council, when the king wanted to arrest him for treason, betook himself to the parliament; and the lords decided, that no peer could be brought to judgment, except in parliament, and before the peers, A. D. 1341. Though the temporal peers owe the assertion of this privilege to a bishop, they will probably allow the bishops themselves to lose it, as in some cases—though in the worst times of English history—these have been tried by common juries.

³ Charles of Blois had married *Jane*, the daughter of Montfort's elder brother.—This war is remarkable for the heroism of *Jane of Flanders*, the countess of Montfort, who, when her husband was taken prisoner, presented her infant son to the Bretons at Rennes, Oct. 1341, and got them to espouse her cause. In the spring, she bravely held out at Hennebon against Charles, until the siege was raised by the arrival of sir Walter Manny and the English.

and killed Charles of Blois at Auray, A. D. 1364, and established his right.

In the year 1345, the war was resumed with fresh vigour ; and in Guienne, the earl of *Derby*, the king's cousin, and sir *Walter Manny*, recovered the places which had been taken, and with 900 men overpowered 12,000 Frenchmen, and raised the siege of Auberoche. Edward himself went to Flanders, and tried to get the rebels to make his son their count ; but he failed, and his friend Arteveldt was murdered at Ghent, July, 1345. The following summer, he ravaged Normandy, and went on plundering to the gates of Paris, from which he was soon obliged to retreat towards Flanders, pursued by Philip and an army 100,000 strong. He was stopped by the Somme ; and though he succeeded in forcing the passage of that river, yet, foreseeing that he would have much difficulty in continuing his retreat through an open country, he resolved to wait for the enemy near the village of Cressy (Crécy), where he defeated them in a great battle, in which his gallant son, *Edward the Black Prince*, greatly distinguished himself, and the chivalry of France fell beneath the arrows of the English archers⁴, Aug. 1346.

Edward now laid siege to Calais, which about a year afterwards was forced by famine to surrender at discretion⁵.

Soon after the victory of Cressy, David, king of Scotland, who had tried to make a diversion in favour of the

⁴ Besides the duke of *Lorraine* and the count of *Flanders*, there fell the French king's brother, *Charles*, count of *Alençon*, and his father-in-law, *John of Luxemburgh*, the blind king of Bohemia, whose crest was assumed by the Prince of Wales. The French, as at Sluys, lost more than 30,000 men.

⁵ *Eustace de St. Pierre* and five other burgesses of Calais went with halters in their hands to offer their lives as the price of the pardon of their fellow-townsmen. Edward, with real or pretended reluctance, spared them at the intercession of Philippa, his queen.

French by invading the north of England, was met by *Philippa*, Edward's queen, at Neville's Cross, near Durham; and by her small army, commanded by the archbishop of York and the lords *Henry Percy* and *Ralph Neville*, he was taken prisoner, and 15,000 Scots were slain, Oct. 1346. These successes were followed before long by a time of misery and suffering, when England was visited by the "Black Death," a dreadful pestilence, which had arisen in Asia, and had spread from thence throughout the world, destroying, it is said, at least one-third of mankind. The distresses of France, where Philip of Valois was succeeded by his son, *John II.*, A. D. 1350, were increased by the intestine commotions caused by *Charles the Bad*, the profligate king of Navarre⁶.

At length, A. D. 1355, Edward renewed the war with France; on which the Scots invaded England, an attempt which was retaliated in the beginning of the next year by the horrors of *Burnt Candlemas*, when their country, as far as Edinburgh, was wasted with fire and sword. The summer after this, the Black Prince, who had marched from Bordeaux to the centre of France with not more than 12,000 men, plunder being his only object, unexpectedly fell in, near Poitiers, with a large army which king John himself commanded. The arrival of the pope's legate, cardinal *Talleyrand de Perigord*, suspended hostilities; but, as the French king insisted on the English surrendering themselves as prisoners, the prince, who had made most liberal offers, resolved to hazard an engagement. The English gained a glorious victory, Sept. 1356, and John, after a desperate resistance, was taken prisoner and carried to London. He was treated with the utmost courtesy⁷.

⁶ This year, Edward was victorious in a hard-fought battle in the Channel with the mariners of the north of Spain, which had been provoked by outrages caused by commercial rivalry.

⁷ Edward was now able to release the Scotch sovereign, whose

France was now in a most distracted state⁸. But when the *dauphin* (or crown prince) became of age, March, 1358, he succeeded in gradually restoring order by his vigour, and foiled the designs of the English king. At length, after uselessly overrunning France with a large army for several months⁹, Edward became more pacific, and at the "*Great Peace*" of Bretigni, May, 1360, agreed to renounce his claims; on condition of reserving to himself all Aquitaine, and the county of Ponthieu, together with Calais and Guisnes, in full sovereignty. John, whose honour has come down to posterity without a blemish, had much difficulty in fulfilling the treaty; and when his son, the duke of *Anjou*, one of his hostages, escaped and returned to France, he went over to England to prove his integrity, and there he died, A. D. 1364.

Charles the Wise, the late dauphin, now applied himself with success to the task of healing the troubles of France. To get rid of the bandit companies, he collected them under the command of the famous *Bertrand du Guesclin*, and sent them into Spain to support *Henry* count of *Trastamare*, the bastard of Castile, in his rebellion against his half-brother, the odious *Peter the Cruel*. As these worthies insisted on first having absolution for their sins,

subjects had formerly been bribed by a paltry sum from France not to ransom their liege lord. The Scotch king was unable to keep his engagements, and a fresh agreement was at length made, June, 1365, which ended in the "*Great Truce*" for twenty-five years.

⁸ The roads were beset with *routiers*, or disbanded soldiers, who had become robbers; the king of Navarre waged war with the dauphin, who, being under age, was unable to make himself obeyed, and was driven out of Paris by a revolt of the citizens; and the peasants in Picardy, and other places, broke out into a dreadful insurrection against their lords, called the *Jacquerie*, and were guilty of frightful excesses.

In the mean while, the French fleet pillaged Winchelsea, March,

Du Guesclin led them to the pope at Avignon, and, after extorting a benediction and a large sum of money, marched on to Castile, and speedily drove the tyrant from his kingdom.

But Peter fled to Bordeaux, where he prevailed upon the Black Prince to espouse his hateful cause, who, with 30,000 men, passed over into Spain, defeated Henry and his great army at Navarette, and took Du Guesclin prisoner, April, 1367. This success was but temporary. Peter lost the support of the English by his bad faith; and when, after a short interval of peace, the struggle was renewed by the vanquished party, he lost his crown and his life. As for the Black Prince, who had returned to Bordeaux in a declining state of health, and deeply involved in debt, the imposition of a hearth-tax increased his unpopularity among his father's French subjects, some of whom complained to the king of France; and, in violation of the peace of Bretigni, he was summoned as a vassal to defend himself at the court of his rival, Jan. 1369. This, of course, produced a war, in the beginning of which the Black Prince was forced by ill health to return to England, where he died, after lingering for six years in seclusion¹; and at its close, Feb. 1375, the cautious valour of Du Guesclin, now constable of France, had stripped the English of almost all that they possessed abroad².

The latter years of the king's life were also sullied by the insolent domineering of his low-born mistress, *Alice*

¹ His last exploit, the retaking of Limoges, A.D. 1370, was disgraced by a wholesale massacre which spared neither age nor sex.

² Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne were still left when the truce was made. In the summer of 1372, Henry of Trastamare had sent his fleet under *Boccanegra*, to Rochelle, and these ships, which were armed with cannon, intercepted the succours which the earl of Pembroke was bringing from England. Not an English vessel escaped.

Perrers, and of the unpopular duke of *Lancaster*³, who was suspected of attempting to secure the succession to the crown for himself.

The influence of the dying prince of Wales was exerted in the "Good Parliament," in which the Commons (whose leader, if not speaker, was *Peter de la Mere*) impeached several of the ministers, and denounced banishment and forfeiture against Alice Perrers, should she interfere with the administration of justice. After his death, June, 1376, they had his son *Richard* introduced to both houses as the heir to the throne⁴.

Lancaster soon recovered from this check. He persecuted Peter de la Mere and *William* of *Wickham*, the famous bishop of *Winchester* and chancellor; had a more manageable parliament packed; and, to intimidate the clergy, accompanied their enemy *John Wycliffe* to St. Paul's, whither he had been summoned for heresy, Feb. 1377. Such was his insolence to *Courtney*, bishop of *London*, that the indignation of the citizens broke out in a serious tumult, for which he displaced the mayor and aldermen.

In June, 1377, Edward died at Shene⁵, exhausted with weakness, and plundered and forsaken in his last moments by his mistress and his servants.

During this reign, the power of the House of Commons greatly increased, as the king's foreign wars often made

³ *John of Gaunt*, or Ghent, the king's fourth son, who outlived his elder brothers, and by his first marriage had acquired all the wealth and power of the dangerous house of Lancaster. In right of his second wife *Constantia* (the legitimated daughter of Peter the Cruel), he afterwards tried to seize the throne of Castile. The dispute was settled by the marriage of his only child by *Constantia* to *Henry* (afterwards Henry III.) of Castile, A. D. 1393.

⁴ They are also said to have rejected Lancaster's proposal of a Salic Law.

⁵ Afterwards called Richmond in the days of the Tudors.

him dependent upon his people for supplies of money⁶. Many of the encroachments of the pope were stoutly resisted ; and in the year 1366, the prelacy and parliament of England supported Edward in his refusal to pay any longer the tribute which John had yielded. At this time, chivalry was at its height, and the oldest order of knighthood, not religious, in Europe, that of the Garter, was founded at Windsor, A. D. 1349. The invention of cannon, which Edward is said to have used at Cressy, and an improved military system which made infantry important, gradually made chivalry fall into decay⁷.

The age of Edward was that of *Geoffrey Chaucer*, the father of English poetry, our present language being now formed out of French and Saxon. It was also made remarkable by John Wycliffe, of the university of Oxford, who withstood the mendicant friars, exposed many of the enormities of popery, and published a translation of the Bible. He was protected against the clergy by the duke of Lancaster and the dowager princess of *Wales* ; and his followers, called Lollards, soon became exceedingly numerous.

⁶ Sheriffs were now made annual, that they might become answerable for arbitrary conduct ; and, in 1361, *the pleas were ordered to be held in English, and not in French*. The Statute of Treasons, enacted by the "Blessed Parliament," A. D. 1351, by its strict definitions put an end to the constructive treasons, on pretence of which estates were sometimes forfeited to the crown. Besides which, illegal tallages and the "maltolte," or evil toll, on wool, were firmly withstood, and the confirmation of the Charters by Edward I. was established in practice.

⁷ A feudal army was arrayed by the earl-constable and the earl-marshal. It consisted chiefly of the *men-at-arms*, or heavy cavalry, besides which were the *hoblers*, or light horse, the archers (the strength and superiority of England), and the common foot soldiers. A knight bachelor, who had his proper number of men, wore a pennon ; and, if he had several knights under him, the point of his pennon was cut off in the field, and he assumed the square banner with the rank and title of banneret.

Some of WYCLIFFE's opinions indeed were of the wildest kind, and his sect has long since been crushed; yet the "Morning Star of the Reformation" has not come forth in vain. His writings, eagerly read in Bohemia, gave the first great impulse to that mighty movement in Germany which ended in setting many nations free from the thralldom of popery; nor has their effect on the destinies of England been less lasting. In our country, it was not safe for the clergy to trust to force alone against the Lollards: they were also obliged in some measure to reform themselves. It was this partial reform which gave birth to that strong love for many of the usages of the old religion, in which the English almost stood alone in the sixteenth century; and thus was checked that rage for innovation by which the zeal of the Protestant reformers was too often alloyed. And hence arose the wise moderation of a Church, which the English race and the English language were eventually to establish in every quarter of the world^{*}.

RICHARD II.

A.D. 1377. *Richard II.*

1381. Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

1385. Richard burns Edinburgh.

1386. Suffolk impeached. Richard deprived of his power.

1387. The Lords Appellant.

1388. The Wonderful Parliament. *Battle of Otterburn.*

1389. Richard regains his power.

1393. The Statute of Præmunire.

1397. Attainder and death of Gloucester.

1398. Exile of Hereford and Norfolk.

1399. Richard deposed.

As RICHARD, the son of the Black Prince, was only eleven years old at his accession, a council of regency, from which his uncles were excluded, was appointed by the

^{*} Wycliffe's remains were dug up and burnt, and the ashes cast into a brook, by order of the council of Constance.

prelates and barons. The truce with France had expired, and a lingering war ensued, to defray the expenses of which a poll-tax of three groats was imposed upon every person, male or female, above fifteen, Dec. 1380. This was a heavy exaction upon the poor⁹, many of whom were ill-used bondmen¹; and the harsh and brutal manner in which it was collected made it yet more hateful. Insurrections broke out in Kent and Essex, June, 1381; and the rebels under *Wat Tyler*, and a priest who was called *Jack Straw*, marched upon London², where they were also guilty of the greatest outrages, beheading the royalist gentry and the Flemings who fell into their hands, and burning several public buildings. The young king agreed to meet them at Mile-End, and granted the abolition of slavery and their other demands; but in the mean while Tyler burst into the Tower, and struck off the head of the chancellor, *Simon Sudbury*, archbishop of Canterbury. The next morning, he also behaved with such insolence during an interview with the king at Smithfield, that *William Walworth*, the lord mayor, thrust a short sword into his throat. The rebels drew their bows to avenge his fall; but Richard, with astonishing presence of mind, came forward and offered to be their leader. They followed him to Isling-

⁹ The value of money was high then.

¹ Many of the serfs or villeins had already been made free by becoming copy-holders, or even by escaping from thralldom and living a year and a day within the walls of a town; but this only served to excite the envy of the rest. The late wars had thrown a number of idle, turbulent persons on society; and the general discontent had been increased by the levelling principles of the Lollards, and perhaps of some of the Mendicant Friars.

² At Blackheath, the seditious preacher *John Ball* harangued them on the natural equality of mankind. His first text was:—

When Adam delved and Evé span,
Who was then the gentleman?

ton, where, on the approach of a number of men-at-arms, they submitted to his mercy. In other parts of England, these dangerous revolts were likewise put down. None of the king's promises were kept³.

The government of Richard, when he grew older, was unpopular, owing to his reckless extravagance, his overbearing haughtiness, and his partiality towards his favourites, the chief of whom were *Robert de Vere*⁴, earl of *Oxford*, and his chancellor *Michael de la Pole*, the earl of *Suffolk*. *Thomas*, duke of *Gloucester*, the king's ambitious uncle, took advantage of this state of things. At a time when a French invasion was dreaded, Oct. 1386, the Commons, instead of granting a supply, petitioned for the dismissal of the ministers, and carried their point. The chancellor was impeached by them, and punished with forfeiture and imprisonment⁵; Richard also was at last intimidated into signing a commission, by which the duke and his friends were invested with all the authority of the crown. Young as he was, the king could not be made to grant this power for more than a twelvemonth; and he openly protested against any infringement of his rights, and secretly obtained opinions from several judges that these proceedings were treasonable. The secret was betrayed⁶; and when, at the end of Nov. 1387, he returned to London, Gloucester and others of his party⁷ appeared at

³ The war with Scotland was renewed. Richard once burned Edinburgh and other large towns, overrunning the country as far as Aberdeen, while the Scots and their French allies made a fearful inroad into Cumberland, Aug. 1385.

⁴ He was made marquess of Dublin, and the government of Ireland, with the title of duke, was given him for life.

⁵ Little, however, was proved against the chancellor or the government.

⁶ By sir *Roger Fulthorpe*, one of the judges.

⁷ Besides Gloucester, the constable of England, were the earl of

the head of a large force, and appealed several of the royalists of high treason. When the "Wonderful," or "Merciless" Parliament met, Feb. 1388, the peers decided in favour of the "*Lords Appellant*," and *Tresilian*, the chief justice, and others of the accused, were executed: the rest died in exile. Among the latter were De Vere and Suffolk, who had baffled the attempts of their enemies to seize them.

The duke of Gloucester was now master of England; but his popularity soon declined⁸, a circumstance which enabled Richard to deprive him of his power, May, 1389⁹. The king ruled prudently for a few years¹, established some degree of order in Ireland, and made peace with France. He had not, however, forgiven his uncle; and at length, A.D. 1397, Gloucester, and the earls of *Warwick* and *Arundel*, were treacherously seized and appealed against for high treason. The duke was sent to Calais, where it was given out in a few months that he had died; Arundel was beheaded; and *Thomas Arundel*, the archbishop of Canterbury, and the earl of Warwick, were exiled.

Richard had the support of several princes and nobles, Arundel, the admiral; Mowbray, earl of Nottingham, the marshal; Henry of Bolingbroke, earl of Derby; and Beauchamp, earl of Warwick.

⁸ The defeat of the *Percies* by the Scotch, at Otterburn (in which, however, earl *Douglas*, the enemy's general, was killed) A.D. 1388, did not add to the popularity of the government.

⁹ Being now more than twenty-one years old, he had suddenly asked his uncle at a great council to tell him his age, and had declared that he was old enough to manage his own concerns.

¹ To protect the rights of patrons against the pope, the most stringent of the acts against provisors, the great statute of *præmunire*, was drawn up, A.D. 1393, which subjected all persons bringing papal bulls into the realm against the rights of the kingdom to forfeiture and imprisonment. This virtually gave the disposal of the great church dignities to the crown, which could easily intimidate the *chapters*.

whom he had cunningly detached from his uncle's party, and on whom he now lavished titles and estates. *Mowbray*, the earl-marshal, who had been raised to the duchy of *Norfolk*, suspected his sincerity, and imparted his doubts to his friend and kinsman *Henry* of *Bolingbroke*, the son of *John* of *Gaunt*, lately made duke of *Hereford*. *Hereford* betrayed him to the king²; on which he gave his accuser the lie, and it was decided, by a high court of chivalry at *Windsor*, that the question should be tried by wager of battle at *Coventry*. When the champions were about to engage, *Richard* suddenly interfered, and banished both from England, *Hereford* for a term of years, and *Norfolk*, who died of a broken heart, for life, Sept. 1398.

Having thus rid himself of his opponents, the king governed in the most arbitrary manner; and besides other acts of rapacity, when the old duke of *Lancaster* died, he broke the promises which he had made to *Bolingbroke*, and seized upon his inheritance. But while he was absent in *Ireland*, avenging the death of his cousin *Roger*, earl of *March*, *Bolingbroke* landed with *Archbishop Arundel* and a few followers at *Ravenspur*n, in *Yorkshire*, July, 1399; and their cause was espoused by *Percy*, the powerful earl of *Northumberland*, and a host of adherents. After a fatal loss of time³, *Richard* returned to oppose them: but when he had arrived at *Milford*, in *Wales*, his men began to desert him fast, and he fled to *Conway Castle*, where he found that the loyalists of *Wales* and *Cheshire*, who had

² *Hereford* was made to denounce *Mowbray* before the parliament at *Shrewsbury*, Jan. 1398. This parliament annulled the acts of *Gloucester's* parliament, and confirmed the answers given by the judges. *The committee, also, which remained in those times, when the session was over, to transact the less important business, was now invested with most dangerous powers, and the king made it treason to resist its enactments.*

³ Caused by the treacherous advice of his cousin *Edward*, earl of *Rutland*, now duke of *Albemarle*, who afterwards, on the death of his father, *Edmund*, son of *Edward III.*, became duke of *York*.

gathered at the summons of *John Montacute*, earl of *Salisbury*, had become weary of waiting, and had disbanded. From this retreat he was allured by the base arts of Northumberland⁴. Brought down with insult as a prisoner to London, he is said to have read a deed of resignation in the Tower, and to have given his ring to his enemy; and the next day, Sept. 30, he was also deposed by the parliament. The artful Bolingbroke, who had originally sworn that he only came to claim his estates, now challenged the crown *in right of his descent from Henry III.*⁵, and was placed upon the throne. Richard did not long survive his downfall. He died at Pomfret Castle, probably of hunger.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

HENRY IV.

A. D. 1399. *Henry IV.*

1400. Insurrection of the Appellants. Revolt of Glendower.

1401. Statute de Hæretico Comburendo.

1402. *Battle of Nesbit Moor, and of Homildon Hill.*

1403. *Battle of Shrewsbury.*

1405. Captivity of James of Scotland. Scrope and Mowbray surrender at Shipton.

1408. Battle of Bramham Moor.

After having thus usurped the crown, Henry placed the young earl of *March*⁶, the rightful heir, in honourable con-

⁴ Bolingbroke, fearing that his victim might set sail for Bordeaux, sent the earl to Conway, by false oaths on the Holy Sacrament, to get Richard to go with him to Flint. (Bolingbroke, on being made grand justiciary, was to ask for pardon there.) On the way, an ambuscade of the earl's followers seized the king, Aug. 1399.

⁵ Thus hinting at the groundless story of his maternal ancestor, Edmund Crouchback, having been really that king's eldest son, though set aside on account of deformity.

⁶ The grandson of *Philippa*, daughter of *Lionel*, duke of *Clarence*, third son of Edward III. He was descended from Roger Mortimer.

finement at Windsor. He likewise had the proceedings against Gloucester's party reversed, and made those who had appealed them of treason give up the titles and estates with which they had been rewarded. The disgraced nobles plotted to seize the king, and restore Richard to the throne. But they were betrayed⁷; and, when they attempted to revolt, they were seized at different places, and beheaded by the people, Jan. 1400. The next year, to gain the support of the clergy, whose bishops and abbots formed nearly half the house of Lords, he turned against the Lollards, and illegally made a statute for burning heretics⁸.

Henry was early involved in a long and tedious war with *Owen Glendower*, a famous Welsh leader, to whom no redress had been given when Lord *Grey of Ruthin*⁹ seized his land. It was not long, however, before he quarrelled with his friends the Percies, who had lately distinguished themselves by their victories over the Scotch¹, at Nesbit

⁷ By their accomplice the earl of Rutland, who had now lost his duchy of Albemarle: he is said to have feared his father, who had discovered the plot. Among those who perished, were Salisbury, and the two *Hollands* (the earls of *Kent* and *Huntingdon*, who had lost the duchies of Surrey and Exeter), the grandson and son of Richard II.'s mother.

⁸ *William Sawtre*, a priest, was soon afterwards executed.—The statute was made without the sanction of the commons, who were so much influenced by the new opinions, that in 1407 they recommended the impropriation of Church property.

⁹ Grey was taken prisoner by Glendower, and was allowed by the king to ransom himself,—a favour refused out of jealousy to sir *Edmund Mortimer*, who was uncle of the earl of March. The enraged Mortimer now married Glendower's daughter, and got the family of his sister's husband, young Henry Percy, to take up arms against the king.

¹ The duke of Albany, who governed Scotland, had given out that a half-witted Englishman confined by him in Stirling Castle, was Richard II.

Moor, and at Homildon Hill, in which last battle, earl *Douglas*, the enemy's general, was taken prisoner, Sept. 1402. They allied themselves with their captive, and with Glendower; and Northumberland's son, *Henry Percy*, surnamed *Hotspur*, together with *Thomas Percy*, earl of *Worcester*, and *Douglas*, appeared in arms in North Wales, with the intention of forming a junction with the malcontents, and of raising the earl of March to the throne. But, before Glendower had come up, they were encountered by the king near Shrewsbury; and after a bloody conflict, in which the Prince of Wales was wounded in the face, and the royal standard beaten down², the fall of the gallant Hotspur caused the flight of his disheartened followers, and Worcester and Douglas were taken prisoners, July, 1403.

Worcester was put to death; but the peers forced the king to accept the apology of the earl of Northumberland, who, on the news of his son's death, had disbanded the army which he was bringing to his aid, pretending that he had gone out to oppose him. Two years afterwards, the earl joined *Thomas* lord *Bardolf*, *Thomas* lord *Mowbray*, Norfolk's son, and *Scrope*, the venerable archbishop of York, in a fresh revolt; but fled with Bardolf into Scotland, when the army of Scrope and Mowbray at Shipton, near York, had dispersed, after their ill-fated leaders had been lured to a conference by the earl of *Westmorland*, and treacherously seized, May, 1405³. The fugitives eventually returned to resume the struggle, and perished at Bramham Moor, near Tadcaster, Feb. 1408.

Henry had now the young king of Scotland, *James I.*,

² The king fought in disguise: those who wore his arms were slain.

³ *Sir William Gascoigne* (the upright chief-justice, who is said to have once sent the prince of Wales to prison for contempt of court,) refused to try them, as they were peers; the time-serving Fulthorpe sentenced them to death without any form of trial.

in his power, that prince having been seized by an English cruiser when he was on his way to France, whither his broken-hearted father had sent him for safety, on account of his dangerous uncle the duke of *Albany*⁴. But he himself fell into a wretched state of health; and his sufferings from epilepsy and a leprous disorder in his face, were increased by loss of popularity and his dark suspicions of the fidelity of his son, whose fondness for low companions is said to have caused him much anxiety. He died of a fit which seized him while praying in Westminster Abbey, March, 1413.

This wily prince once passed a law which excluded females from the succession to the crown, June, 1406; but, feeling that this would weaken the claim to France, he had the act repealed before the end of the year.

HENRY V.

- A. D. 1413. *Henry V.* Cobham accused of heresy.
- 1414. Outbreak of the Lollards.
- 1415. Conspiracy of Scrope and Cambridge. *Battle of Agincourt.*
- 1417. Invasion of France. Death of Cobham.
- 1420. *Peace of Troyes.*
- 1421. Battle of Beaujé.

HENRY V. began his reign by dismissing his evil companions. He also displayed great zeal against the Lollards, delivering up to the clergy his former friend sir *John Oldcastle*, by marriage lord *Cobham*, who belonged to them. Oldcastle escaped from the Tower; was con-

⁴ Albany, who rose to power owing to the weakness of his brother, *Robert III.*, had imprisoned and starved to death *David* duke of *Rothsay*, James's elder brother. He had once obliged him to marry lady *Margaret Douglas*, and to renounce the daughter of *Dunbar*, the Scottish earl of *March*, who in revenge became the ally of the Percies and the English.

nected with the plots of the Lollards, who failed in an outbreak at St. Giles, Jan. 1414; and became an outlaw for some years, when he was taken, and put to death as a traitor and a heretic, being cruelly hanged by the middle over a slow fire, Dec. 1417.

Anxious to give his subjects little leisure to dispute his title to the throne, he resolved to attempt the conquest of France, where the king, *Charles VI.*, was a helpless madman, and the murder of his ambitious brother, the duke of *Orleans*, by his cousin and rival, *John*, duke of *Burgundy*, had kindled most deadly feuds. After having been delayed at Southampton by the discovery and punishment of a plot against his life (*Richard* earl of *Cambridge*⁵, the duke of York's brother, having conspired with lord *Scrope* of *Masham*, and sir *Thomas Grey* of *Northumberland*, to place the crown on the head of the earl of *March*); he set sail for *Normandy*, Aug. 1415, and after a siege of some weeks, took the town of *Harfleur*. Though his army was weakened by dysentery, he thought it disgraceful to reembark, and at the head of less than 15,000 men determined to force his way to *Calais*. He was met at *Agin-court* by the constable *d'Albret* and about 100,000 French; and, notwithstanding their sufferings from sickness and want of food, on *St. Crispin's day* (Oct. 25), his English soldiers, who had kept up their courage by exercises of devotion, won for themselves a most astonishing victory⁶.

⁵ He had married *Anne Mortimer*, sister of the earl of *March*, on whose death without issue, their son, who had also succeeded to the duchy of *York*, inherited and asserted the claims of the *Mortimers* to the throne. See p. 196.

⁶ Upwards of 8000 French gentlemen were slain, among whom was the brave duke of *Alençon*, who had fought his way to the royal standard, struck down and slain *Edward*, duke of *York*, and cleft asunder the crown on the king's helmet. Henry honoured the devoted gallantry of *David Gam*, a Welsh soldier, by knighting him when dying.

Henry returned home with his wasted army, and two years elapsed before he again invaded France. He landed in Normandy, which, after much resistance, once more became subject to England. The feuds by which France was distracted, favoured his designs⁷. The infamous queen, and *Philip*, the young duke of *Burgundy*, openly allied themselves with the English against *Charles* the Dauphin; and by the *perpetual peace* ratified at Troyes, May, 1420, Henry obtained the hand of the princess *Catherine*, with the regency of France during the king's life, and the succession to the crown at his death.

The Scots under the earl of *Buchan*, Albany's second son⁸, aided the Dauphin; but though the English were defeated, and *Thomas* duke of *Clarence* killed at Beaujé, March, 1421, he was soon driven beyond the Loire. In the midst of his brilliant success, Henry died, Aug. 1422⁹; and in a few weeks he was followed by Charles VI., his unfortunate father-in-law.

HENRY VI.

A. D. 1422. *Henry VI.* Bedford regent.

1424. *Battle of Verneuil.* Beaufort and Gloucester quarrel.

1426. Beaufort resigns the chancellorship.

1429. *The Siege of Orleans raised.*

1431. Death of Joan of Arc.

1435. Congress of Arras; Death of Bedford.

⁷ John, duke of Burgundy, and the Dauphin had become reconciled. But the duke was murdered, (Sept. 1421) during an interview at Montereau by the Dauphin's attendants, whose master had to bear all the odium of the deed.

⁸ *Murdac*, the eldest (who had been taken prisoner at Homildon Hill), was beheaded six years after his father's death, and his duchy was forfeited, A. D. 1425.

⁹ After Henry's death, Catherine married *Owen ap Tudor*, a Welsh gentleman. Her son {*Edmund Tudor*, earl of *Richmond*, married *Margaret Beaufort*, heiress of *John*, duke of *Somerset*, and was the father of Henry VII.

- 1441. Prosecution of Eleanor Cobham.
- 1445. The king's marriage.
- 1447. Arrest and death of Gloucester. Beaufort dies.
- 1450. *Fall of Suffolk*. Jack Cade. Loss of Normandy.
- 1452. The duke of York imprisoned.
- 1453. *Talbot slain in Guienne*. The king's illness.
- 1454. The duke of York protector.
- 1455. *Battle of St. Alban's*.
- 1459. Battle of Blore-heath. Flight of the Yorkists.
- 1460. *Battles of Northampton and Wakefield*.
- 1461. Battles of St. Alban's and Mortimer's Cross.

As HENRY VI. was but an infant when his father died, his uncle, *John* duke of *Bedford*, was made regent of France, and another of his uncles, *Humphrey* duke of *Gloucester*, governed England, in *Bedford's* absence, with the title of protector¹.

In France, the English gained several victories over the adherents of Charles VII., the late Dauphin, whose Scotch auxiliaries, together with their leaders *Buchan* and *Douglas*, were destroyed at *Verneuil*, where *Bedford* defeated the duke of *Alençon*, and took him prisoner, Aug. 1424². Some years afterwards, Oct. 1428, they crossed the *Loire*, and laid siege to *Orleans*³, the fall of which would have certainly been followed by the subjugation of France. At this crisis, the "maid of *Orleans*," *Joan of Arc*, a noble-minded peasant girl of *Champagne*, believed herself inspired from God to save her country, and to lead her sovereign in triumph to be crowned at *Rheims*. Mounted on a grey charger, armed as a knight, and with a holy banner

¹ The late king had named Gloucester regent; but when parliament met, the house of peers overruled this, and appointed a council with the protector as president.

² Peace had lately been made with the Scots, whose young king was ransomed, Sept. 1423.

³ *Montacute*, earl of *Salisbury*, who was killed by a cannon-shot, and the earl of *Suffolk* attacked the town, which was defended by *Dunois*, the Bastard of *Orleans*.

borne before her, she made her way into Orleans with a reinforcement ; and was received by the French as a messenger from heaven, and dreaded by the English soldiers as a sorceress. Such was her bravery, and the enthusiasm which she kindled, that the siege was raised, May, 1429, and the king soon afterwards crowned at Rheims, which was recovered from the Burgundians. The next year, the maiden was taken prisoner by the Burgundians, who sold her to the English ; and at last, she was cruelly burnt to death at Rouen as a witch, May, 1431.

Though Bedford tried to cause a reaction by crowning young Henry at Paris, the power of England in France daily declined ; particularly after his death, and the reconciliation of the duke of Burgundy with Charles VII. at Arras, Sept. 1435. At length, Normandy was lost, and Guienne soon followed ; so that in the year 1453⁴, there remained nothing to Henry VI. but the town of Calais.

During the minority of Henry, England had been disturbed by the dissensions of Gloucester and the chancellor, *Henry Beaufort*, bishop of Winchester and afterwards cardinal, the son of John of Gaunt by *Catherine Swynford*⁵. The prelate induced the council to exclude his ambitious nephew from the Tower ; the duke in revenge got the citizens of London to shut their gates upon his uncle. To prevent a civil war, Bedford came over and settled the quarrel at the "Parliament of Bats⁶," at Leicester, March, 1426. Beaufort then resigned the seals, and went abroad for some years ; but as the king grew

⁴ Lord *Talbot* was then slain in a last effort to recover Guienne, which had soon revolted against its new masters.

⁵ The duke married this mistress of his, and Richard II. legitimated the *Beauforts*, her children, *excluding them, however, from the succession to the throne.*

⁶ So called, because when swords were forbidden to be worn by the members, they came with clubs or bats.

up, his party regained the ascendant. They accused *Eleanour Cobham*, once the mistress, and now the wife of Gloucester⁷, of having fascinated her husband with the aid of *Margery Jourdemain*, *witch of Eye*, and of conspiring with *Roger Bolingbroke*, his chaplain, to shorten the king's life by means of sorcery⁸; and she was made to do penance, and confined for life, Nov. 1441. It being of consequence to have a queen in their own interest, the king having inherited a tendency to madness from his grandfather Charles VI., they made choice of the strong-minded but unscrupulous *Margaret of Anjou*⁹, and secured the match by a shameful treaty in which they restored Anjou and Maine to her impoverished father. Two years after this marriage, Gloucester himself was arrested for high treason, and in a few days was found dead in his bed, Feb. 1447. Cardinal Beaufort, however, did not much outlive his rival.

The losses sustained in France made the government unpopular, and *William de la Pole*, the duke of *Suffolk*, who was the queen's favourite minister, was at length impeached by the commons. To save his life, he threw himself on the king's mercy, who banished him for five years; but while crossing the sea, he was intercepted by his foes, and his head was struck off, May, 1450. Lord *Say*, the treasurer, was also beheaded two months after-

⁷ Gloucester had first married *Jacqueline*, the heiress of *Hainault* and *Holland*, widow of the dauphin *John*, when she had eloped to England from her new husband *John* duke of *Brabant*, a boy of sixteen. The duke of Burgundy took part with his cousin of *Brabant*, and after his death forced *Jacqueline* to declare herself her heir, A. D. 1428. Gloucester then married *Eleanour*, and *Jacqueline* one *Frank of Bursellen*!

⁸ Henry was to waste away in proportion as a waxen image of him was melted before a slow fire. The witch, of course, was burnt, and Roger hanged.

⁹ Daughter of *Réné*, duke of *Anjou*, and titular king of *Jerusalem*.

wards at Cheapside, when an Irish adventurer named *Jack Cade*, who pretended to be a Mortimer and had raised an insurrection in Kent, had gotten possession of London. Cade's followers were guilty of some acts of pillage: the citizens rose against them, and the rebellion was suppressed.

A more dangerous foe to the crown now appeared in the person of the true representative of the Mortimers, *Richard* duke of *York*¹; who left his command in Ireland, and took up arms against his rival, *Edmund Beaufort* duke of *Somerset*, the successor to Suffolk in power and unpopularity². On the sham arrest of Somerset, he disbanded his forces, and found himself a prisoner, March, 1452. He was released, however, after solemnly taking the oaths of fealty at St. Paul's; and when the king fell for a short time into a state of idiotic lethargy, he was called into the council, and at length made protector by the parliament, March, 1454. But though Somerset had been imprisoned in his turn, he was soon restored when the king recovered; which so enraged the duke of York and his friends³, that they rose in rebellion. After an attack on St. Alban's, in which Somerset was killed and the king himself wounded and taken prisoner⁴, they succeeded in establishing their superiority, May, 1455.

¹ Son of the late earl of Cambridge by Anne Mortimer. See p. 191.

² After having forced the duke of York to give him up the government of Normandy, he had lost it to the French. The loss of France was a relief to the English treasury; but the nobles and their dependents missed the patronage of Normandy and Guienne.

³ York had the powerful support of the *Nevilles*, his wife's kinsmen. The chief of these was Richard, earl of Salisbury; one of whose sons, named likewise Richard, had married *Anne Beauchamp* the heiress of the *Warwick* family, and became the famous earl of Warwick, the "king-maker."

⁴ The earl of *Northumberland*, lord *Clifford*, and the earl of *Stafford*, were also killed.

Notwithstanding their success, and another short fit of madness, Henry, whose virtues had endeared him to his subjects, by degrees regained his power, and at length had reconciled all parties. But the queen was not to be trusted, and it was not long before the struggle was renewed. After defeating lord *Audley* at Blore-heath in Staffordshire, Sept. 1459, the earl of *Salisbury* formed a junction with the duke of York at Ludlow; where the approach of Henry at the head of 60,000 men, and the desertion of sir *Andrew Trollope*, filled the confederates with such alarm that they dispersed. York fled to Ireland, and his eldest son *Edward* earl of *March*, together with the earl of *Warwick*, found a refuge in Calais. In the mean time, a parliament was held at Coventry, in which such vindictive acts of attainder were passed, that the whole of the Yorkist party became desperate.

But before many months were over, Warwick and young Edward had landed with 1500 men in Kent, and the citizens of London, and thousands of the discontented, had declared in their favour. They advanced against the royalists, who were entrenched at Northampton; and being aided by the treachery of lord *Grey* of *Ruthyn*, they forced the position, and took the king prisoner, July, 1460⁵. He was compelled to call another parliament, and Richard of York openly claimed the throne. Even then, the regard which was felt for Henry preserved him the crown for his lifetime; and it was decided that on his death, the house of York should succeed.

To this compromise, the queen, who with her son had escaped to Scotland, would not agree. She made her appearance in the north of England, where several of the adherents of the house of Lancaster were in arms⁶; and

⁵ *Humphrey*, duke of *Buckingham*, was among the slain. He had been wounded at St. Alban's, where his son *Stafford* fell.

⁶ *Somerset*, *Northumberland*, and *Clifford* (the murderer of young

when the duke of York hastened with his friend Salisbury at the head of an inferior force to oppose her designs, he was defeated and killed at Wakefield, Dec. 1460. His head, adorned with a paper crown, was exposed on the walls of York; Salisbury was led to Pomfret, and beheaded; and Margaret advanced towards London, gained another victory over Warwick at St. Alban's, Feb. 1461, and rescued the king's person from the hands of his enemies.

But Edward of York, who had levied an army in the west, and had defeated *Jasper Tudor*, earl of *Pembroke*, at *Mortimer's Cross*, near *Wigmore*, Feb. 2^d, marched to the support of Warwick, and obliged the queen to retreat. Her vindictiveness was fatal to the cause of the *Red Rose* of Lancaster, and so increased the popularity of the *White Rose* of York, that Edward was received in London with enthusiasm and proclaimed king, March, 1461.

HOUSE OF YORK.

EDWARD IV.

- A. D. 1461. *Edward IV. Battle of Towton.*
 1464. Battles of Hedgley Moor and Hexham.
 1469. Battle of Edgecot. Rebellion of the Nevilles.
 1470. Battle of Erpingham. Warwick restores Henry VI.
 1471. *Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury. Death of Henry VI.*
 1475. Invasion of France.
 1478. Clarence beheaded.

The new king, whose military skill was far beyond his years, advanced with Warwick into Yorkshire, and at Towton, near Tadcaster, utterly routed an army of 60,000 Lancastrians, commanded by *Henry* duke of *Somerset*,

Edmund earl of *Rutland*, York's son, at Wakefield), were Margaret's champions. They all died violent deaths like their fathers.

¹ *Pembroke's* father, *Owen Tudor*, was taken and beheaded.

March, 1461. No quarter was given, and the bloody victory was followed up by wholesale attainders⁸. The deposed family fled to Scotland, and afterwards made some unsuccessful attempts to retrieve their fortunes, which ended in the flight of Margaret to the continent; the execution of Somerset, who, after the defeat of his friend sir *Ralph Percy* at Hedgley, was overpowered at Hexham by *John*, lord *Montague*, Warwick's brother, April, 1464; and the imprisonment of Henry, who was at last betrayed into the hands of his enemies, and confined in the Tower.

Edward now gave himself up to dissipation, and quarrelled with his powerful friends the Nevilles, who were particularly offended by his marriage with *Elizabeth Wydevile*⁹, the widow of the Lancastrian sir *John Grey* of Groby, and the rapid advancement of her relations¹. After some years of ill-concealed discontent, their retainers openly joined the insurgents of the north, when they marched into Wiltshire, and at Edgecot crushed the army which *Herbert*, the Yorkist earl of *Pembroke*, was bringing to the king's aid, July, 1469²; and in a few days, Edward found himself a prisoner in the power of Warwick. He managed to reconcile himself with them, and to recover his liberty; and

⁸ The earl of *Northumberland* fell at Towton, and the murderer *Clifford* the day before, whose son was brought up as a poor shepherd, and, when restored by Henry VII., was known as the "shepherd lord."—*John*, earl of *Oxford*, was attainted with his son *Aubrey*, and beheaded, as had also been *Courtenay* earl of *Devon*.

⁹ She won the king's heart while petitioning in favour of her children, as he was visiting her mother *Jacquetta* of *Luxembourg*, the regent duke of Bedford's widow, who had married the handsome sir *Richard Wydevile*, afterwards lord *Rivers*.

¹ Edward also deprived *George*, archbishop of *York*, one of the brothers, of the chancellorship.

² Herbert was killed, and earl *Rivers* and his son *John* taken and beheaded.

when, in the following year, Warwick once more revolted, he defeated his adherents at Erpingham³ in Rutland, March, 1470. When the news of this reverse reached the earl, he and his son-in-law, *George* duke of *Clarence*, the king's brother, fled the kingdom.

Warwick found a ready welcome in France, at the court of the artful *Lewis XI.*, by whom he was reconciled to Margaret of Anjou; and it was agreed that the exiled prince of *Wales* should marry his daughter, and that he himself should return to England, and restore the power of the house of Lancaster. He accordingly landed in Devonshire, whence he advanced with a force, which increased daily, to encounter Edward; who at Doncaster discovered the marquess of Montague to be a traitor, and mounting his horse, rode to Lynn, and escaped for his life to Holland, which belonged to his brother-in-law, the duke of *Burgundy*. Warwick and Clarence entered London in triumph, and Henry VI. was once more conducted from a prison to the throne, Oct. 1470.

Meanwhile Edward, with the secret aid of the duke of Burgundy, managed to collect a force of 1500 men, with which he sailed to Ravenspurn, in Yorkshire; and thence, being joined by the faithless Clarence, he boldly marched to London, which, together with king Henry's person, was surrendered to him; and afterwards, on Easter Sunday, April, 1471, he won the decisive battle of Barnet, in which Warwick and Montague were killed. That same day, Margaret and her son landed at Weymouth, and the contest was renewed, which soon ended at Tewkesbury, where she was taken prisoner, and the young prince slain in cold blood, May, 1471⁴. It was now given out that the deposed king had died of grief.

³ Called "Lose-coat field," because the fugitives threw away their armour.

⁴ *Edmund*, the last Beaufort duke of *Somerset*, and other Lancas-

To revenge himself upon the king of France, Edward, who had availed himself of a new plan of extorting presents from his subjects under the name of *Benevolences*, invaded his territories. But the cunning Lewis, who knew his indolence and had bribed his ministers, by the payment of a large sum of money, and the promise of an annual tribute, induced him to return home, Aug. 1475. Three years afterwards, Edward caused the duke of Clarence to be condemned to death for high treason, and it was pretended that the unfortunate prince had died suddenly in the Tower. His own death, which was hastened by his habits of self-indulgence, took place, April, 1483⁵. He was succeeded by his son *Edward*, a child not more than eleven years old.

EDWARD V.

A. D. 1483. *Edward V.* Seizure of the king and his relations. Hastings beheaded. Edward deposed.

The young prince, with his uncle the accomplished earl *Rivers*, and his half-brother lord *Richard Grey*, when on his way to London, was seized by *Richard* duke of *Gloucester*, his paternal uncle. Lord *Hastings*, the late king's minister, ventured to oppose the ambition of Gloucester who was now protector; but he was suddenly arrested at the council-table in the Tower, and instantly executed, June, 1483⁶. Rivers and Grey were also beheaded at Pomfret Castle, without any sort of trial; and the queen-mother, who had taken sanctuary at Westminster with her eldest son *Thomas Grey*, marquess of *Dorset*, and her other

trian leaders, were dragged out of a neighbouring church, and beheaded.

⁵ In his reign, posts were first established, and *William Caxton* introduced the newly-invented art of printing.

⁶ The archbishop of *York*, Lord *Stanley*, and *Morton*, bishop of *Ely*, were arrested and imprisoned at the same time.

children, was prevailed upon to surrender *Richard* duke of *York*, the king's brother, into his uncle's hands.

The protector, who, perhaps, at first had only meant to ruin the Wydeviles, had now gone too far to recede with safety. Reports were spread that the late king's marriage was invalid, owing to a prior engagement⁷; and by the contrivance of the powerful duke of *Buckingham*, who had the support of the lord mayor and some of the chief citizens of London, Richard was invited to take possession of the throne, June 25. He soon thought it unsafe to leave his nephews alive, and they were secretly murdered in the Tower⁸.

RICHARD III.

A. D. 1483. *Richard III.* Execution of *Buckingham*.

1485. *Battle of Bosworth*.

RICHARD, called *Crookback* because he was somewhat misshapen, had to defend himself before long against the treachery of his friend *Buckingham*. For the latter entered into a correspondence with *Henry Tudor*, the exiled earl of *Richmond*, who claimed to be the representative of the house of Lancaster, and was to eke out his defective title⁹ by a marriage with *Elizabeth* of *York*, the eldest daughter of the late king. A revolt in favour of *Richmond*

⁷ To lady *Eleanor Boteler*, daughter of *Talbot*, earl of *Shrewsbury*, and widow of sir *Thomas Boteler* (or *Butler*), lord *Sudely*. To make his brother's licentiousness more conspicuous, Richard caused his mistress *Jane Shore* to do penance at St. Paul's, and confiscated her property. A vile report was also spread that Edward IV. was not really the son of the duke of *York*.

⁸ The common report is, that sir *James Tyrrel*, having the command of the Tower for a night, caused the princes to be smothered.

⁹ *Richmond's* claim, on the strength of his descent from John of Gaunt through the Beauforts (see p. 192, note 9), was a bad one (see p. 194, note 5). Moreover, the princes of Portugal and Castile were descended from the earlier wives of John of Gaunt.

was concerted ; the marquess of Dorset and others rose in different counties ; and Buckingham marched from Wales to their support. The floods of the Severn, of which the bridges had been broken down, checked his progress : he was deserted by his followers ; betrayed by a servant with whom he had sought a retreat ; taken to Richard's headquarters at Salisbury, and beheaded, Nov. 1483. The rebellion was soon crushed. Richmond, who was on his way to England, now returned to Brittany, where he was joined by Dorset¹.

To thwart Richmond's scheme, the king now got his brother's widow to leave the sanctuary, meaning perhaps to marry the lady Elizabeth to his son *Edward*, who died soon afterwards, April, 1484. The next year, his queen died also, and he was suspected of having hastened her end. Richard certainly had some thoughts of marrying his niece, and the young lady and her mother seem to have been nothing loth ; but the dread of public opinion made him give up this hateful design.

In the mean while, Richmond had been forced to take refuge in France, having had a narrow escape from the treachery of *Peter Landais*, the duke of Brittany's minister, whom English gifts had bribed. But he afterwards managed to raise a small army, with which he sailed to Milford Haven, and marching through Wales, reached Bosworth, in Leicestershire, whither Richard had hastened to meet him. The inactivity of the earl of *Northumberland*, who was but a cold Yorkist, and the treachery of lord *Stanley*² and his brother sir *William*, who passed over to

¹ Richmond's mother, *Margaret Beaufort*, was included among the attainders which now took place ; but her life was spared for the sake of her double-dealing husband lord *Stanley* (afterwards earl of *Derby*), who had been restored to favour.

² His son, lord *Strange*, who was a hostage for his fidelity, was ordered to be beheaded ; but the command was not fulfilled.

Richmond, decided the fate of the contest; and Richard, disdaining to fly, threw himself into the midst of his foes, and died, Aug. 1485.

Not only the crimes, but even the bodily defects of this prince have been so heightened by a victorious faction³, that it is hard to say, whether he were a cold-blooded monster, or a man who having made one false step, was fearfully hurried into a downward course. He was not more than thirty-three when he ended his eventful career.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

HENRY VII.

A. D. 1485. *Henry VII.*

1486. Union of the Roses. Lovell's insurrection. Lambert Simnel.

1487. Battle of Stoke. Laws against Maintenance.

1492. *Columbus discovers the West Indies.* Treaty of Estaples. Perkin Warbeck.

1495. Execution of sir William Stanley.

1496. The Magnus Intercursus. Perkin goes to Scotland.

1497. The Cornish revolt. *Perkin Warbeck surrenders.* John Cabot.

1499. Execution of Warbeck, and of the earl of Warwick.

1502. The Malus Intercursus. Death of prince Arthur.

After his coronation, HENRY TUDOR married Elizabeth of York, Jan. 1486. This "Union of the two Roses" tended greatly to reconcile the Yorkists to his government; yet he was jealous of his wife's better title, and his conduct towards her was marked with cold distrust. He also kept

³ Thus the murders of Henry VI. and his son, and the attainder of Clarence, have been laid at his door! Nor could the back have been so "crooked," or the arm so "withered," of the man who at Bosworth cut his way to Henry, aiming a blow at him after having knocked down the strong *Cheney*, and killed sir *William Brandon*, the standard-bearer.

imprisoned in the Tower young *Edward*, earl of *Warwick*, the son of the murdered duke of Clarence, and the last male Plantagenet.

As this ill-fated youth was much pitied, the king's enemies took advantage of the circumstance; and *Lambert Simnel*, a joiner's son, was taught to personate him, and then taken over to Ireland, where it was given out that he had escaped from prison. Though Henry tried to unmask the imposture by publicly displaying the real earl at court and at St. Paul's cathedral, the Irish proclaimed Simnel king; and *John de la Pole*, the discontented earl of *Lincoln*⁴, and lord *Lovell*, the attainted minister of Richard⁵, joined him at Dublin, with 2000 mercenaries, under *Martin Swartz*, furnished by *Margaret of York*, the dowager duchess of *Burgundy*, a most determined enemy of the Lancastrians. The rebels now invaded England; but at Stoke, in Nottinghamshire, they were routed by *De Vere*, the earl of *Oxford*, and their leaders perished, June, 1487. As for Simnel, who became a prisoner, his life was spared, and he was contemptuously employed by the king as a scullion in his kitchen⁶.

After this success, severe laws were made against "Maintenance," or the practice of wearing the badge, and joining the faction of a nobleman for the sake of mutual protection⁷. The lords of the Privy Council, together with

⁴ Eldest son of the duke of *Suffolk* and *Elizabeth*, sister of Edward IV. and of Richard III., which last had named him his heir.

⁵ He had fled beyond sea, after having first attempted to surprise the king near York, April, 1486.—His colleague *Catesby* had been put to death after the battle of Bosworth.

⁶ The king, who had thus been frightened into giving an unreserved amnesty to the Yorkists, now thought it prudent to let his queen be crowned.

⁷ By such combinations, the administration of justice was impeded, and rebellions more easily organized.—Henry once unfeelingly caused

the two chief justices, had power to punish offenders against these statutes; an authority which in after-times was stretched beyond the law, and the hateful *Court of the Star-chamber*, which could inflict any penalty short of death, or forfeiture, became dangerous to public liberty. As the power and numbers of the nobles had also been much reduced by the battles, executions, and confiscations, which of late had been so common, and by newly-devised means of breaking entails which had enabled those who were unthrifty to dispose of their estates^a; while the commons were not yet strong enough to withstand the authority of the crown by themselves; the English monarchy for upwards of a hundred years was little less than despotic. Only the forms of liberty were preserved.

Though the increasing power of France had begun to alarm Europe, Henry was more ready to ask supplies from his subjects than to engage in expensive wars; and when at length he crossed the channel with a large army, he agreed by the treaty of Estaples to return home, *Charles VIII.* having offered to pay a large contribution, Nov. 1492.

About this time, he was troubled by a fresh impostor, *Perkin Warbeck*, a native of Tournay, who pretended to be Richard, the late duke of York, and to have escaped from the Tower when Edward V. was murdered. Under the zealous patronage of the duchess of Burgundy, this adventurer, after making his appearance in Ireland, and at the court of the French king, which the late treaty obliged him to leave, found a refuge in Flanders; whence he entered

his fellow exile and faithful adherent the earl of Oxford to be fined 10,000*l.* for having mustered his retainers to do him honour when he visited his house.

^a The common belief, which ascribes these to the policy of Henry VII., is erroneous: he only revived one of Richard III.'s measures.

into a correspondence with the malcontents of England, which, by means of spies and traitors, was detected, and cost several persons their lives⁹. He was also repulsed when he landed at Deal. At length, the Flemings, on account of their trade with England, would no longer harbour him, Feb. 1496¹, on which he sailed to Cork, and then to Scotland, where *James IV.* was prevailed upon to engage in a fruitless war with England, and even to give him his kinswoman, lady *Catherine Gordon*, in marriage. When *James* desisted from the contest, *Perkin* again visited Cork without success, and afterwards landed in Cornwall, which had lately been in a state of insurrection². Joined by 6000 men, he advanced as far as Taunton, where the sight of the royal army so dismayed him, that he fled to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in Hampshire, and at length surrendered on a promise of pardon, Nov. 1497. Being ordered to keep within the precincts of the palace, he became weary of restraint in a few months, and attempted to escape. For this, he was made to stand in the stocks, and confess his imposture, and also imprisoned in the Tower. There he became acquainted with the unfortunate earl of Warwick, and drew him into a plot to recover their freedom, by murdering the governor of the place. This scheme was detected, and *Perkin Warbeck* executed, Nov. 1499. The young earl was mercilessly arraigned for treason, and beheaded³.

⁹ One of these was the earl of Derby's brother, sir *William Stanley*, the lord chamberlain, who was denounced by the renegade sir *Robert Clifford*, and beheaded, Feb. 1495.

¹ When they agreed to make the "*Magnus Intercursus*," or Great Treaty of Commerce with England.

² Enraged at having to pay for the defence of the northern counties against the Scots, 16,000 men under *Flammock*, an attorney, and *Joseph*, a farrier, found a commander in lord *Audley*, and marched to Blackheath, where they were routed by lord *Daubeney* and the earl of Oxford, June, 1497. The leaders were executed.

³ Several attempts had been made to procure *Warwick's* escape ;

A few years afterwards, April, 1502, Henry lost his eldest son, *Arthur* prince of Wales, a boy of fourteen, who had been just married to *Catherine of Arragon*, the daughter of Ferdinand of Spain; and, as he was unwilling to return the dower of that princess, he betrothed her to *Henry*, his only surviving son⁴. His own health gradually declined, and his death, April, 1509, put an end to a reign of which craft and avarice were the chief characteristics⁵. His rapacity was insatiable⁶. He sold offices and pardons; extorted benevolences from his subjects; and enforced unjust claims on their property, by availing himself of the forms of law, and the obsequiousness of sir *Richard Empson* and sir *Edmund Dudley*, his corrupt Exchequer judges⁷.

This period is marked in History as the close of the Middle Ages. England, France, and Spain, had become united and powerful monarchies; great inroads had been

and a fellow named *Ralph Wulford*, who rose in Kent, had been lately hanged for personating him, March, 1499.

⁴ *Margaret*, the princess royal, was also married shortly afterwards to James IV. of Scotland.

⁵ When the archduke *Philip*, the lord of the Netherlands, was driven into Falmouth on his way to Spain, Jan. 1506, he inhospitably forced him to make a new treaty of commerce called the "*Malus Intercursus*;" to contract his infant son Charles (afterwards Charles V.) to his younger daughter, a match which never took place; and to give up *Edmund de la Pole*, Lincoln's younger brother.

Edmund, though his father was not attainted, had been obliged to content himself with the title of *earl* of Suffolk, and part only of the family estates. He had lately fled to Flanders, and was concerned in a plot for which the notorious James Tyrrel was executed. Henry promised to spare his life; but bade his cruel successor put him to death, a command which was at length fulfilled.

⁶ Morton, his unscrupulous chancellor, whom he made archbishop of Canterbury, was greatly hated.

⁷ In this reign, A. D. 1495, the wise and just law was made, that no man should suffer forfeiture or attainder for taking arms in the service of the king for the time being.

made every where into the Feudal System ; the art of printing had been discovered ; barbarism was dispelled by the revival of classical learning ; and commerce and navigation had received a mighty impulse from the discovery of a new world by *Christopher Columbus*, a Genoese in the service of Spain, A. D. 1492 ⁸ ; and of the passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, a voyage first made, A. D. 1497, by the Portuguese, under *Vasquez de Gama*.

HENRY VIII.

- A. D. 1509. *Henry VIII.* The king marries Catherine of Arragon.
 1510. Execution of Empson and Dudley.
 1513. *Battles of the Spurs and Flodden.*
 1517. *The Reformation begins in Germany.*
 1521. Execution of Buckingham. Henry writes against Luther.
 1525. Illegal attempt to raise money baffled.
 1529. Henry's cause revoked to Rome. *Fall of Wolsey.*
 1531. Submission of the Clergy.
 1533. Marriage with Anne Boleyn. *Henry's divorce.*
 1534. *Act of Supremacy.*
 1536. Anne Boleyn beheaded. The lesser Monasteries suppressed. The "Pilgrimage of Grace."
 1539. Attainder of Courtenay and the Poles. *Monasteries dissolved. The Six Articles.*
 1540. Anne of Cleves divorced. *Thomas Cromwell beheaded.*
 1541. Catherine Howard beheaded.
 1542. *Battle of Solway Moss. Mary Queen of Scots.*
 1544. Edinburgh pillaged. Boulogne taken.
 1547. Execution of the earl of Surrey.

HENRY VIII., who was now eighteen, began his reign by marrying Catherine of Arragon, and sacrificing Empson

⁸ Columbus discovered the West Indies, during his first voyage, and South America some years afterwards. He had offered his services to Henry VII., but had been repulsed. North America was discovered, A. D. 1497, by *John Cabot*, a Venetian in the English service.

and Dudley to the popular indignation. His jovial manners; the splendour of his court; the trophies won during a short war with the French, whom he defeated at the battle of the Spurs, Aug. 1513, while their allies the Scotch, who had attempted to make a diversion in their favour by invading England, were signally discomfited at Flodden-field by the earl of *Surrey*⁹, king James IV. and many of his nobles being slain; all tended to make him acceptable to his subjects, who, however, had soon to pay for his extravagance, and were harassed by forced loans and other illegal exactions¹. Luckily for him, much of the odium fell upon his proud and overbearing chancellor, *Thomas Wolsey*, archbishop of *York* and cardinal, the pope's legate in England, to whose hatred and Henry's jealousy, *Edward* duke of Buckingham fell a victim, May, 1521.

The age of Henry VIII. was the era of the Protestant *Reformation*, which began in Germany, where the sale of indulgences or pardons for sin stirred up *Martin Luther*, an Augustinian friar, to preach against the abuses of popery, A. D. 1517. In England, the Reformation at first was strongly withstood by the king, who even wrote a book on the Seven Sacraments against Luther, and had also received from the pope the title of Defender of the Faith. But when age and ill-health had impaired the beauty of Catherine of Arragon, Henry, who had long been an unfaithful husband, began to entertain scruples as to the lawfulness of his marriage, which were much increased by his passion for *Anne Boleyn*², one of her maids of honour;

⁹ Surrey was rewarded by the restoration of the duchy of *Norfolk*, the title of his father, the faithful *John Howard*, who fell at *Bosworth* in the cause of Richard.

¹ Henry even ventured (A. D. 1525) to raise money by the royal prerogative. The opposition of the clergy, and the insurrections of the commons, particularly in *Suffolk*, forced him to desist.

² Daughter of sir *Thomas Boleyn* (then lord *Rockford*, and after-

and when he applied to the pope for a divorce, he was enraged to find himself thwarted by the influence of the emperor *Charles V.*, his wife's nephew. At the end of two years, Wolsey and cardinal *Campeggio* were appointed as the pope's legates to try the question in England, when the high-minded queen protested against the authority of the court, solemnly declaring to the king's face that his brother never really was her husband, June, 1649; but in a few weeks, proceedings were suspended, and the cause was revoked to Rome. Wolsey now fell into disgrace³; and though allowed to retire to York for a short time, he was arrested on a charge of high treason, an event soon followed by his death at Leicester Abbey, where he had been forced by illness to stop on his way to London⁴. Henry also resolved to cast off his allegiance to the pope, and to get himself acknowledged as "the Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England." The clergy, though they insisted on adding the words, "*as far as the law of Christ will allow,*" to the terms of their submission, were forced⁵ to yield to his will, March, 1531; the opinions of several universities unfavourable to the validity of the marriage, though not

wards earl of *Wiltshire*), and of *Elizabeth* daughter of the duke of Norfolk. She had been for some years maid of honour in France.

³ Being accused of a breach of the statute of *præmunire* (see p. 185, note 1) in having held a Legatine Court, though *with the royal licence*, he threw himself on the king's mercy, and gave up his office and all his possessions, Oct. 1529. When, however, his enemies brought an accusation against him in the house of commons, the king had it thrown out by the agency of Thomas Cromwell, who had passed into his service from that of the cardinal.

⁴ Wolsey, when dying (Nov. 1530), said, "that had he served God as diligently as he had served the king, he should not have been forsaken in his grey hairs."

⁵ The whole body had been put under a *præmunire* on account of an acknowledgment of Wolsey's jurisdiction, to which he himself had intimidated them! They had also to pay a fine of 118,000*l.*

gained by the fairest means, were acted upon by the advice of *Thomas Cranmer*, a learned divine ; and he at length privately married Anne Boleyn, his patience being worn out during the slow progress of his negotiations with Rome, Jan. 1533. Soon after this, he made Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury, who annulled the first, and sanctioned the second marriage. The next year, the quarrel between the king and the pope became irreconcilable ; the latter pronouncing the marriage with Catherine to be valid, while in England the Act of Supremacy was passed, which declared the sovereign to be the head of the Church ⁶, and entirely abolished the papal jurisdiction. All who denied the Supremacy, or the legitimacy of the king's daughter by Anne Boleyn, were held guilty of treason ; and on this account, *John Fisher*, the bishop of *Rochester*, sir *Thomas More*, the late chancellor, and many others, suffered death.

The monasteries being firm in their attachment to the pope's interests, *Thomas Cromwell*, Henry's new minister, determined upon their ruin. He began by attacking the smaller and less powerful establishments, and they were suppressed by act of parliament, March, 1536. This measure caused an insurrection in the north of England, known as "The Pilgrimage of Grace," which was headed by the archbishop of *York* and several of the nobles ; but the king averted the danger by making promises which he never kept. Commissioners were now sent to visit the

⁶ When the supremacy of the crown was revived by queen Elizabeth, the title of Head of the Church, which only belongs to Christ, was laid aside. Some of Henry's extravagant pretensions were also dropped. It is, however, to be borne in mind, that the sovereign is supreme governor of the Church of England within the British dominions.—Cromwell was made the king's vicar-general, and all ordinaries were compelled during this and the following reign to obtain commissions from the crown.

greater monasteries, and the superiors were either forced or persuaded to surrender them all to the crown, which proceedings were ratified by the parliament, May, 1539⁷. But though Henry had gone thus far, and had even allowed an authorized version of the Bible to be published⁸, he was a Romanist at heart; and he caused his obsequious parliament, a few weeks afterwards, to pass the *Law of the Six Articles*, known as the "Bloody Bill," which affirmed the truth of transubstantiation, and other Romish doctrines. Several Protestants were now burnt as heretics.

Henry's affection for Anne Boleyn had been soon transferred to *Jane Seymour*, one of her maids of honour, who became his third wife, the unfortunate queen having been divorced and beheaded on a groundless charge of adultery and incest, May, 1536⁹. Jane Seymour, the next year, died in child-bed, after giving birth to a prince named *Edward*; and, as the king had remained unmarried since, Thomas Cromwell, anxious to regain the ground which the reformers had lost owing to the Law of the Six Articles, at length persuaded him to connect himself with the German Lutherans, by marrying the sister of the duke of *Cleves*, Jan. 1540. But *Anne of Cleves* was not as pleasing in her

⁷ Some refractory abbots were executed for treason. The proofs of immorality in the monks are far less than what might have been expected,—much less than would have been found before the rise of the Lollards, who had obliged the clergy to become more strict.

Henry himself gained little by this wholesale confiscation. Most of the abbey lands were given to lord *Russell* and other obsequious courtiers.—The parliament also passed an iniquitous statute, *giving the king's proclamations the force of law under the penalties of fine and imprisonment*.

⁸ Several shrines and relics, amongst which were those of Becket (who was unsainted, and his bones burnt, A. D. 1538), were also destroyed.

⁹ Her brother *George*, lord *Rockford*, was beheaded.—Not long before, Jan. 1536, Catherine of Arragon had died.

person and manners as Henry had been led to believe ; and, though he made Cromwell earl of Essex in April, he showed his resentment by suddenly arresting him in June, and causing a bill of attainder to be passed, condemning him to death, without trial, for heresy and treason,—a detestable system which this wretched man himself had invented, in order to enable his master to destroy the aged *Margaret Pole*, countess of *Salisbury*, the daughter of the ill-fated duke of Clarence, and several other members of the house of York ¹.

Anne of Cleves was now divorced on pretence that the king had not given a sincere consent to the marriage ; and to the great joy of the Papists, Henry was quickly married to *Catherine Howard*, the niece of the third duke of *Norfolk*, their leader. But in a few months, it was found out that she was a person of loose conduct, and she was beheaded ². Henry's sixth and last wife was *Catherine Parr*, the widow of lord *Latimer*, who survived her tyrant husband, though she narrowly escaped being put to death for arguing with him in favour of Protestantism.

At the close of his reign, Henry engaged in a war with *James V.* of Scotland, who died of a fever brought on by vexation (owing to the shameful defeat of a Scotch army at Solway Moss, Nov. 1542), leaving an infant daughter to succeed him. These hostilities were continued for some years more, during the regency of the earl of *Arran*³, though at one time it had been agreed to put an end to them by contracting *Mary*, the infant queen, to *Edward*, the young prince of Wales. The French took part with the

¹ Margaret, the last of the Plantagenets, was condemned in June, 1539, and beheaded two years after. Her son *Henry*, lord *Montague*, had been beheaded with *Courtenay*, marquess of *Exeter*, Jan. 1539.

² With her infamous confidante lady *Rockford*, Feb. 1541.

³ During this war, the earl of Hertford plundered Edinburgh, May, 1544.

Scotch, in revenge for which Henry invaded France, and took Boulogne. But his health now began to decline fast. He had grown fat, unwieldy, and irritable; and an ulcer broke out in his leg which brought him to his grave, Jan. 1547. Shortly before this event, the accomplished earl of *Surrey* fell a victim to his jealousy; whose gallant father, the duke of Norfolk, would have shared the same fate, had not his persecutor died on the very day appointed for his execution ⁴.

EDWARD VI.

- A. D. 1547. *Edward VI.* Somerset protector. *Battle of Pinkey.*
 1549. Seymour beheaded. *First Book of Common Prayer.*
 Insurrection. *Fall of Somerset.* Dudley protector.
 1552. Execution of Somerset.

Edward Seymour earl of *Hertford*, afterwards duke of *Somerset*, the uncle of EDWARD VI. who was a minor, succeeded in making himself protector, though a council of regency had been nominated by the late king. He then marched into Scotland to the aid of the Presbyterians. They had lately murdered Cardinal *Beaton*, the archbishop of *St. Andrews* ⁵; and the assassins, joined and abetted by the reformer *John Knox* and a number of his followers, were defending themselves in the castle of *St.*

⁴ This king, the first who assumed the title of king of Ireland, Jan. 1542, was empowered by act of parliament to settle the succession to the crown by will. He bequeathed it first to his son and his heirs; then to his daughters *Mary* and *Elizabeth* (both of whom he had bastardized); and next to the heirs of his younger sister *Mary*, dowager queen of France, who had married *Charles Brandon* duke of *Suffolk* (the son of sir William Brandon). Thus the heirs of his elder sister, *Margaret*, queen of Scotland, were set aside.

⁵ They stole into the castle of *St. Andrews* one morning, and killed the archbishop in his bed-room. As he had persecuted them, this was held to be "a godly fact!"

Andrews against the government. At Pinkey, near Edinburgh, the English general was met by a much larger army than his own, under the earl of Arran, Sept. 1547; but he gained a signal victory, which, however, he could not follow up, as the unsettled state of things at home obliged him to return⁶. The Scotch sought the help of France, and sent thither their young queen, who was now contracted to the Dauphin⁷.

As Somerset favoured the Reformation, archbishop Cranmer was enabled to substitute an English Book of Common Prayer for the Latin service of the Romish Church, and to put down the superstitions which in the course of ages had been sanctioned by the popes, Jan. 1549. Two months afterwards, the protector disgraced himself by the attainder and execution of his ambitious brother *Thomas* lord *Seymour*, the high admiral, who had aspired to the regency⁸. His own fall was not far distant. When the peasants revolted in several counties⁹ in consequence of

⁶ The parliament now gratified the courtiers by a wholesale confiscation of chantries and free chapels, but abolished most of the unconstitutional powers granted to the crown during the last reign.— On the other hand, the Star Chamber now reached its full development.

⁷ The crown prince of France, afterwards *Francis II.* The castle of St. Andrews was reduced with the aid of the French, and Knox was sent to the galleys. About two years afterwards, he was pardoned.

⁸ Thomas Seymour had married Catherine Parr, and after her death, he intrigued for the hand of the princess Elizabeth. Though the commons remonstrated, his brother would not let him be heard in his defence, or even confronted with the witnesses.

⁹ June, 1549. The rebels in the West of England were reduced by lords Russell and Grey. In Norfolk, *Ket*, a rich tanner who had erected a throne beneath the "Oak of Reformation," and established courts of justice, was defeated and put to death; but his followers were so numerous, that it was thought prudent to treat *them* more mercifully than the rest of the insurgents.

religious changes against which they had been prejudiced by the transfer of lands from the monks and other clergy, who were good landlords and lived chiefly on their estates, to absentee courtiers; the council recalled him from the command in Norfolk, and gave it to his rival *John Dudley*¹ earl of *Warwick*, who soon afterwards formed a coalition of nobles against him, and succeeded to his power, Oct. 1549. After his deposition, and the forfeiture of part of his property, much of which was amassed out of the plunder of the Church, Somerset, who had made two most abject confessions, was released from his imprisonment in the Tower; but, at the end of two years, he was accused of plotting against the life of his enemy, and condemned to die, Dec. 1551.

Warwick made a disgraceful peace with France, which had lately declared war²; and, though a Papist at heart, he sided with the more violent among the reformers for the sake of the Church lands, and plate, and ornaments, which their rage for innovation enabled him to seize³. Not content with obtaining the duchy of Northumberland for himself, he married his fourth son, lord *Guildford Dudley*, to lady *Jane Grey*, daughter of *Frances* duchess of *Suffolk*, and the representative of *Mary*, the younger sister of Henry VIII.; after which, he persuaded the young king, who was in a dying state, to make a will, in which, for the sake of securing Protestantism, he passed over his sisters as illegitimate, and the queen of Scots as an alien, and bequeathed the crown to lady *Jane Grey*. Edward lingered a few weeks, and then died, July, 1553; and lady *Jane*

¹ Son of the infamous judge Dudley.

² Boulogne was given up, and the French tribute, and the claims on *Mary* of Scotland, tacitly abandoned.

³ The Prayer Book was also revised, and forty-two articles of religion (reduced in *Elizabeth's* reign, A. D. 1562, to thirty-nine) were now drawn up, A. D. 1562.

Grey was proclaimed queen by Northumberland, Cranmer, and their party⁴.

MARY.

A. D. 1553. *Mary queen of England.* Fall of Lady Jane Grey.
Popery re-established.

1554. Wyat's conspiracy. Execution of Lady Jane Grey.
Mary marries Philip II.

1555. Persecution of the reformers.

1556. Cranmer burned.

1558. *Calais taken by the French.*

MARY, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Arragon, found supporters in Norfolk and Suffolk, and behaved with so much energy and spirit, that in nine days lady Jane's reign was at an end. She put Northumberland to death, and sent lady Jane Grey to the Tower, and, to do her justice, displayed wonderful forbearance and moderation.

Being a bigoted Papist, she restored the bishops whom the late government had tyrannically deprived and imprisoned, and re-established popery in England⁴. She was advised to marry the youthful earl of *Devon*, whom, with the duke of Norfolk and other sufferers from Henry's cruelty, she had just released from prison. But, as he was weak and vicious, she insisted on taking instead the heir to the crown of Spain, afterwards *Philip II.*, a match so unpopular, that the duke of *Suffolk* (lady Jane's father) and his party raised revolts in several parts of the kingdom; the most formidable of which, headed by sir *Thomas Wyat*, who, after defeating the duke of Norfolk in Kent, attacked

⁴ Edward was a youth of precocious talent, and his charitable foundations, Christ's Hospital especially, were noble. Yet he agreed to the death of his uncles in a way which was somewhat heartless.

⁵ These were Bonner, Gardiner, *Day*, *Heath*, and *Tunstal* of Durham. Mary herself would have been persecuted, but for the interference of her kinsman, the emperor Charles V.

London, Feb. 1554, would have succeeded, but for the queen's determination. The leaders were executed; and lady Jane Grey and her husband, who had been detained in prison as hostages for their relations, now shared the same fate. The princess *Elizabeth*, the daughter of the unfortunate Anne Boleyn, had intrigued with the rebels⁶; but her life was spared. In July, Philip married Mary at Winchester: his cold, haughty manners gained him no favour.

Cardinal *Pole*⁷, the pope's legate, afterwards made archbishop of Canterbury, now reconciled England to Rome, Nov. 1554; and under the auspices of *Bonner*, the brutal bishop of London, and *Gardiner*, bishop of Winchester and chancellor, a dreadful persecution began, during which Cranmer⁸, and four other bishops (among whom was the learned and excellent *Ridley*, and the honest *Latimer*), and at least three hundred reformers, were burned alive. These atrocities disgusted the nation, and popery ceased to be popular. In the meanwhile, Mary's health declined; and she died almost broken-hearted for the loss of Calais (which in the beginning of the year had been taken by the French, with whom she was at war for her husband's sake⁹), Nov. 1558. Pole survived her only a few hours.

⁶ Elizabeth and young Courtenay, who was to have been her partner on the throne, were imprisoned in the Tower. They were afterwards released. Courtenay was sent abroad to travel, and died at Padua; Elizabeth again fell under suspicion, and was forgiven.

⁷ Son of the ill-fated countess of Salisbury. He had been attainted himself, and it was to vex him that his mother was beheaded.

⁸ Cranmer, who though zealous and well-meaning, was a weak man, in vain recanted to save his life. But even his enemies allow that he died with great constancy, burning off his right hand in token of his deep repentance.—The first bishop who suffered was *Hooper*, at Gloucester. He had once been imprisoned, in Edward's reign, for scrupling to wear his episcopal dress.

⁹ She was likewise deeply grieved by the treacherous conduct of

Mary's faults arose from the defects of her religious belief: wherever popery was not concerned, the "bloody" queen was righteous, and even merciful. Embarrassed as she always was for money, she conscientiously gave up all the Church property in her hands to relieve the poorer livings, "setting more by the salvation of her soul than by ten such crowns as that of England." These grants were resumed by her successor, during the earlier part of whose reign the system of enriching the courtiers by the plunder of the Church was still continued.

ELIZABETH.

- A. D. 1558. *Elizabeth queen of England.*
 1559. Fall of Popery in England. Presbyterian revolt in Scotland.
 1560. Mary queen of Scots returns home.
 1562. Plot of the Poles. *Religious wars in France begin.*
 1566. Rizzio murdered. *Religious troubles in the Low Countries.*
 1567. *Murder of Darnley.* Battle of Carberry Hill. *James VI. of Scotland.*
 1568. Escape of Mary. *Battle of Langsyde.*
 1569. Norfolk's plot. Insurrection in the North.
 1570. Bull of pope Pius V.
 1571. Death of Murray. Scotland ravaged.
 1572. Execution of Norfolk.
 1581. Elizabeth is betrothed to Anjou.
 1586. Babington's conspiracy.
 1587. *Mary queen of Scots beheaded.*
 1588. *Spanish Armada.*
 1596. Expedition to Cadiz.
 1598. Revolt of O'Neale. Battle of Blackwater.
 1599. Disgrace of Essex.

the pope to her husband. She had seized his letters and messenger at Calais (A. D. 1557), when he had spitefully wanted to revoke Pole's legatine commission; neither would she allow the cardinal to go to Rome when summoned. She was also bitterly disappointed at *having no children.*

A. D. 1600. *East India Company established.*

1601. Execution of Essex.

1603. Mountjoy reduces Ireland.

ELIZABETH, who succeeded without opposition, set herself to the good work of abolishing the pope's power in England, and also of revising and restoring the Book of Common Prayer¹, April, 1559. She refused to marry Philip of Spain, and remained unwedded, notwithstanding her affection for the worthless *Robert Dudley* earl of *Leicester*, son of the late duke of Northumberland.

Much trouble was given to this able princess by the *Puritans*, who objected to many of the Church ceremonies as popish, and in many cases openly seceded from the Church, a step which at a time when dissenters were not tolerated brought upon them much harsh and cruel treatment. They attacked the abuses of the royal prerogative; and though the queen would sometimes check their boldness by imprisoning a troublesome member, she more than once was forced to make timely concessions.

Another cause of danger was the pope's enmity. Though for some years the Roman Catholics had conformed with the Church of England², many of them deemed Elizabeth to be a base-born usurper, and secretly favoured her cousin, the young queen of Scotland, who had once the imprudence to style herself queen of England³. Their allegiance became yet more uncertain, when pope *Pius V.*

¹ Bonner and other popish prelates were imprisoned for the rest of their lives. Several bishops died of an epidemic, and the rest, excepting one, were deprived. The learned and judicious *Matthew Parker*, the new archbishop of Canterbury, was therefore consecrated by bishops whom Mary had deposed.

² Thus they became liable to the charge of schism when they left her communion.

³ Two of the *Poles*, nephews of the cardinal, were accused of plotting to proclaim Mary with an armed force in Wales, when Elizabeth had the small-pox, A. D. 1562. They were pardoned.

promulgated a bull which declared Elizabeth to be excommunicated and deposed, Feb. 1570⁴. From that time, they were kept down by severe laws, under which upwards of two hundred persons in this reign were put to death, many were confined in unwholesome prisons, some were illegally tortured, and all were distressed by heavy fines. Such a system only made things worse: its fruits were countless plots, of which the hunted seminary priests and jesuits were the life and soul.

It became the policy of Elizabeth's ministers to weaken the king of Spain and the other princes who sided with the pope, by taking part with their Protestant subjects. They supported the French Huguenots or Calvinists in their rebellion; they enabled the Dutch to shake off the Spanish yoke; and in Scotland, they ensured the triumph of John Knox and the once persecuted Presbyterian party over the queen dowager *Mary of Guise*⁵ (then regent for her absent daughter), in a contest which on both sides was carried on in the most unscrupulous manner.

The death of her husband Francis II. of France, Dec. 1560, obliged Mary queen of Scots to return home, and to desist from opposing the establishment of the new religion. But she gave deep offence to her Calvinist subjects by continuing to attend mass, and she was unfortunate in her marriage with her handsome cousin *Henry* earl *Darnley*, a man so weak and worthless that she could not love him. Indifference turned to hatred, when the Presbyterians, by making him jealous of their enemy *David Rizzio*⁶, a Pied-

⁴ One *Felton* suffered as a traitor for fixing the bull on the bishop of London's gate.

⁵ She died, June, 1560, a month before the close of the struggle.

⁶ He had joined with the French court in advising Mary not to pardon Murray and other leading men who had plotted against her at the time of her marriage (July, 1565), and had fled into England; but to weaken the whole party by the attainer of the exiles.

montese adventurer who had become the queen's confidential secretary, got him to join them in their atrocious conspiracy to murder Rizzio in her presence, though she was far gone with child, and to make her a prisoner in her own house, March, 1566⁷. Mary induced her fickle husband to aid her in recovering her liberty; but she never forgave him, and it was not long before he was strangled as he was trying to escape when a lonely house where he lay sick was blown up, just after the queen, who had treated him with unusual tenderness, had left it, Feb. 1567.

James Hepburn earl of *Bothwell*, who, though a Protestant, was in the queen's confidence, was instantly suspected. But Mary not only screened him from every attempt to bring him to justice, but actually became his wife⁸. The indignation of the people was roused: *Bothwell* was driven into exile, and Mary lost her crown and her liberty, her own followers having refused to fight for her at Carberry hill, June, 1567⁹. In a few months, she made her escape from Lochleven Castle, and was joined by several nobles who were opposed to *James* earl of *Murray*, her illegitimate brother, the regent of *James VI.* her infant son. *Murray* quickly routed the royalists at Langsyde, May, 1568, and Mary fled into England to seek the protection of Elizabeth, her old rival.

Elizabeth confined her at Bolton Castle, and forced her to submit to an investigation. Mary's agents confronted

⁷ Elizabeth and the exiles were cognizant of the plot, in which the chief actors were the brutal lord *Ruthven* and *Douglas* earl of *Morton*. It has lately been proved that Knox was an accomplice, though he even allowed his friends to publish most solemn denials of the fact.

⁸ *Bothwell* had to divorce his wife, lady *Jane Gordon*.

⁹ *Bothwell* was allowed to ride off, as he could have implicated many of the nobles. He was afterwards seized for piracy by the *Danes*, and died in prison.

Murray and his friends before the English commissioners ; but, finding themselves unfairly treated, they refused to have anything more to do with the proceedings, leaving the field open to Murray, who now produced letters of hers to Bothwell, which, if genuine, would have proved her guilt. It was proposed that she should resign her crown ; but she would not, and remained a prisoner.

The weak and ambitious duke of *Norfolk*, who aspired to become her fourth husband, formed a plot for her restoration, which was favoured by Leicester and many of the nobles, through hatred to sir *William Cecil*, afterwards lord *Burleigh*, Elizabeth's minister. He was betrayed by his associates, and by the mean-spirited Murray, and disgraced. In the north of England, her partisans, headed by *Percy* earl of *Northumberland* and the last *Neville* earl of *Westmoreland*, now took up arms, Nov., 1569, and openly proceeded to re-establish Popery, an attempt which ended in their ruin¹. A few years afterwards, June, 1572, Norfolk renewed his intrigues, and perished on the scaffold. Shortly before, when Murray had been shot by an assassin, Jan. 1571, most of the Scotch nobles had declared for their queen ; but the English, under the earl of Sussex and lord Scrope, fearfully ravaged the south of Scotland, and enabled the Presbyterians to triumph over the royalists². Notwithstanding these disasters, the plots

¹ Westmoreland died in exile. Percy was afterwards sold by the regent Morton to the English, and beheaded at York, Aug. 1572.—His brother, the eighth earl of *Northumberland*, who was accused of plotting in favour of Mary, was found dead in the Tower, June, 1585. He seems to have shot himself.

² The next regent, the old earl of *Lennox*, Darnley's father, was also murdered in September, and on the sudden death of his successor, the earl of *Marre*, Oct. 1572, Morton came into power. He was forced at length to resign, and before long was brought to the block, June, 1581.—The young king, however, was unable entirely to withstand the English faction, though

of Mary's friends, who were harboured by the courts of France and Spain, were still renewed, though always detected by sir *Francis Walsingham*, the secretary, and his spies; and at length *Antony Babington* of Derbyshire, and other young men of quality, were executed for undertaking to murder Elizabeth, Sept. 1586. Babington was in correspondence with Mary, who was brought to trial in the following month at Fotheringay Castle in Northamptonshire, and convicted of having approved of his design. After a hypocritical show of reluctance³, Elizabeth signed the death warrant; and Mary was publicly executed in the castle hall, dying far more nobly than she had lived, May, 1587. The queen now meanly endeavoured to disown the act, and to fasten it on her ministers⁴.

At this time, England was in the greatest peril. Philip II., in revenge for the support given by Elizabeth to the rebels in the Low Countries, was preparing a vast fleet, called the "*Invincible Armada*," which was to sail from Lisbon, and to be joined off the coast of Holland by the renowned duke of *Parma*, and thirty-five thousand veterans embarked in flat-bottomed boats, and then to enter the Thames, and at one blow to subdue a country which had few defences and no standing army. The English made

by his vigour and dissimulation he recovered his authority in a few months after the "Raid of Ruthven," when *Ruthven* earl of *Gowrie* had made him prisoner in Ruthven castle, Aug. 1582. *Gowrie* was at length beheaded. His sons, the last earl and his brother, were killed in the famous "*Gowrie conspiracy*," when they attempted to overpower the king in their house at Perth, Aug. 1601.

³ She had the baseness to propose the private murder of her rival; but sir *Amias Paulet*, Mary's harsh keeper, had the honour or the prudence to refuse.

⁴ A few years before, Nov. 1581, Elizabeth, then about forty-eight, was betrothed to *Francis* duke of *Anjou*, the French king's brother; but she could not make up her mind to marry him.

every effort to ward off the impending danger⁵; and when the Armada reached the channel, July, 1588, lord *Howard of Effingham*⁶, the high admiral, who was ably seconded by sir *Francis Drake* (a commander who had, during three years of privateering against the Spaniards, made the first voyage round the world), was in readiness with a fleet to obstruct it. He hung upon the enemy's rear, and his harassing attacks, and the confusion caused by his fire-ships, made it impossible for them to effect the proposed junction with the duke of Parma. They resolved to sail home northwards; but so violent a storm arose when they were off the Scottish isles, that not half the Armada returned to Spain.

Leicester, who had imprudently been made commander of the troops on shore, died soon afterwards, and his stepson, *Robert Devereux*, earl of *Essex*, became the queen's favourite and the rival of the Cecils. Essex highly distinguished himself at the head of the land forces at the capture and burning of Cadiz, where he acted in concert with his enemy the high admiral, June, 1596; but when he was sent as lord-deputy to Ireland to quell the successful revolt of *Hugh O'Neale* earl of *Tyrone*⁷, he failed in doing anything, and returned to court without leave, Sept. 1599. For this conduct he was arrested, and afterwards sentenced to lose his employments. He now courted the Puritans, and also intrigued with James of Scotland, whom Elizabeth had not yet recognised as her heir. At length

⁵ A fleet under Drake boldly bore into the harbour of Cadiz, and took and destroyed eighty ships, April, 1587. A run upon the bank of Genoa was also contrived, to create delay by stopping Philip's supply of ready money.

⁶ Afterwards earl of *Nottingham*.

⁷ O'Neale had just gained a signal victory near Blackwater in Tyrone, Aug. 1598. Besides the old grievances, the half-savage Irish were enraged at the establishment of the Reformed religion, which was hated as being the faith of their conquerors.

he became desperate, and formed a design to seize upon the queen's person, and to oblige her to banish his enemies, who had now completely gained her confidence. He failed in the attempt ; and, as he disdained to sue for mercy, his artful foes persuaded Elizabeth to consent to his death, Feb. 1601.

His friend lord *Mountjoy*, the new deputy of Ireland, was victorious over the rebels and their Spanish allies ; and Tyrone offered to submit on honourable terms, which were granted him : for Elizabeth, whose great popularity had declined, and whose courtiers were become the secret adherents of the king of Scots, worn out with age and care, was dying at Richmond, and the succession to the throne was not settled⁸. On the death of this great but selfish princess, March, 1603, James VI. of Scotland was proclaimed king by the crafty sir *Robert Cecil* and other influential persons, his undoubted hereditary right outweighing the defects of his title⁹.

HOUSE OF STUART.

JAMES I.

- A. D. 1603. *James I. Raleigh's Conspiracy.*
- 1604. Hampton Court conference.
- 1605. New tenures in Ireland. *Gunpowder Plot.*
- 1610. Episcopacy revived in Scotland.
- 1612. Death of prince Henry.
- 1613. Overbury poisoned.

⁸ Lady *Catherine Grey*, lady Jane Grey's sister, the *parliamentary* heiress to the throne, had secretly married *Edward Seymour* earl of *Hertford*, protector Somerset's son ; but Elizabeth declared the marriage invalid, and confined her for the rest of her life.

⁹ In the reign of Elizabeth the East India Company was established, A. D. 1600.—The genius of *Shakspear*, Bacon, and other great writers, makes this period renowned in our literary history.

A. D. 1618. The thirty years' war. Raleigh beheaded.

1621. Impeachment of Bacon.

1623. Prince Charles and Buckingham in Spain.

On the accession of JAMES, Sir *Walter Raleigh* and other enemies of the late earl of Essex were disgraced. In revenge, they entered into a series of plots and intrigues¹, for which they were condemned to die. Lord *Cobham* and lord *Grey*, having been cunningly brought to the scaffold, made a full confession under the expectation of immediate death, and were allowed to live, Dec. 1603. Raleigh was reprieved, but detained in prison.

As James had been brought up a Presbyterian, the Puritans entertained great hopes, which the king, who hated their republican tendencies, soon blighted. At the conference of divines at Hampton Court, Jan. 1604, they only obtained a few alterations in the Prayer Book, and a revision of the authorised version of the Bible. Some years afterwards, he revived episcopacy in Scotland, Oct. 1610. He did not, however, think it politic to introduce the English Liturgy, but prepared the way by enjoining con-

¹ Such as the placing the infanta *Isabella* daughter of Philip II., or Lady *Arabella Stuart* the king's cousin, on the throne; and the design of seizing James's person, and forcing him to sacrifice the Cecils, the younger of whom sir Robert, was made earl of *Salisbury*.—The former of these plots was called the "*Main*," and the Spaniards were privy to it; the latter, the "*Bye*," or the "*Surprising Treason*," in which the Puritan Grey was implicated. The "*Bye*" was concocted by Cobham's brother, *George Brooke* (who was executed), and sir *Griffin Markham* (who was one of those reprieved on the scaffold). Grey ended his days in prison; Cobham was afterwards released, but died in great wretchedness.

Lady *Arabella Stuart* was treated by James with the same suspicious cruelty which lady Catherine Grey had met with from Elizabeth; and when she married sir *W. Seymour* (lady Catherine's grandson, afterwards duke of *Somerset*) she was deprived of liberty, and in about four years died bereft of reason, Sept. 1611.

firmation, the communion of the sick, and the observance of the chief festivals, Aug. 1621. He also curbed the Scotch preachers by a court of high commission.

The king attempted in vain to effect a legislative union between England and Scotland ; but he succeeded in substituting the English system in Ireland instead of the old tenures and customs of the natives, A. D. 1605². That same year was remarkable for the conspiracy of several papists to blow up the king and the parliament, and to set upon the throne one of James's younger children, who was to be brought up in their own faith. A mysterious letter to lord *Monteagle*, putting him on his guard, betrayed the scheme. The vaults beneath the house of lords were searched, Nov. 5, and *Guy Fawkes*, an officer who was to set fire to the train, arrested. *Catesby*, *Percy*, and *Digby*, his accomplices, fled to Warwickshire, where they took up arms in despair, but were soon overpowered. The few who survived, together with *Fawkes*, and *Garnet* and *Oldcorn*, two Jesuits who were privy to the plot, suffered as traitors.

James had high notions of the divine right of kings ; yet he had more than once to give way to the increasing boldness and power of the parliament, by whom *Francis Bacon*, lord Verulam, his famous chancellor, was impeached, and severely punished for his corrupt conduct, May, 1621. But, though he annulled the monopolies granted by Elizabeth, he would not abolish the chartered companies, nor do away with the abuses of purveyance and wardship³. Shrewd and cunning as he was, his extrava-

² James adopted the plan of planting English and Scotch colonies in the confiscated lands in Ulster. In 1611, he raised money by selling patents for the new dignity of baronets.

³ *Purveyance* was the right of pre-emption for the fuel and provisions wanted for the household,—of which the payment was very

gance, his ungainly person and pedantic manners, his partiality to the Scotch, and his love of worthless favourites,—such as *Robert Carr*, a handsome young Scot, who became earl of *Somerset*, and was allowed to sell patents of nobility, but was at length disgraced for the share which, at the instigation of the countess of *Essex*⁴, he had taken in the poisoning of his old adviser sir *Thomas Overbury*, Sept. 1613⁵; and after him *George Villiers*, who in a few years became duke of *Buckingham*, knight of the garter, and lord high admiral,—made him contemptible to his subjects.

His unpopularity was much increased by the execution of Raleigh, whom, after a long imprisonment in the Tower, he had permitted to go to Guiana, and explore some gold mines which he pretended to have discovered. Raleigh plundered one of the Spanish settlements, contrary to most positive orders in his instructions, and, when the king of Spain complained of the outrage, he was beheaded on his former sentence, Oct. 1618. The people and the parliament were also much offended by his refusal to engage in a war with Spain and the empire, in behalf of his son-in-law, *Frederic* elector palatine; who, when the thirty years' war broke out in Germany, A. D. 1618, had accepted the proffered crown of Bohemia from the Protestants then in rebellion against Austria, and was punished for his rashness by the loss of his own dominions. A projected marriage between *Charles*, the young prince of Wales⁶, and

slow. *Wardship* was the guardianship of the orphan vassals of the crown, whose estates were often pilfered, while they themselves were made to marry against their will.

⁴ *Frances Howard*, who was soon afterwards divorced from her husband, and married to Somerset.

⁵ Somerset was arrested, Aug. 1615, and in the following year he and the countess were convicted. Their lives were shamefully spared.

⁶ *Henry*, James's eldest son, died of a fever, Nov. 1612.

the popish infanta of Spain, an alliance by which James was to obtain the restoration of the Palatinate, was equally unacceptable to the English; and the commons, though admonished "not to meddle with deep matters of state," petitioned against it.

The Spanish match was broken off by the insolence of Buckingham to the king of Spain's ministers at Madrid, whither he had accompanied prince Charles, who, like a knight errant, had gone in disguise to court the infanta, A. D. 1623. A confederacy was now formed with France and Holland against the house of Austria¹, and an expedition, which never came to anything, fitted out under count Mansfield for the recovery of the Palatinate: Charles was also engaged to *Henrietta Maria*, the sister of *Lewis XIII.* of France. Just before this marriage took place, James I. died, March, 1625.

CHARLES I.

A. D. 1625. *Charles I. Attack on Cadiz.*

1626. Buckingham impeached.

1627. *Siege of Rochelle.*

1628. *Petition of Right.* Death of Buckingham. *Fall of Rochelle.*

1634. Ship-money.

1637. *Outbreak in Scotland.*

1638. Hampden cast. The Covenant.

1639. *The Covenanters take up arms.* Pacification of Berwick.

1640. The Scots enter England. *Long Parliament.*

1641. *Strafford beheaded.* *Irish Rebellion.*

1642. The five members impeached. *Battle of Edgehill.*

1643. Waller's plot. Battles of Chalgrove Field, Atherton Moor, and Devizes. Bristol taken. Siege of Gloucester raised. Battle of Newbury. *Solemn League and Covenant.*

¹ The king of Spain and the emperor of Germany were then at the head of each branch of that house.

A. D. 1644. Battles of Cropredy-bridge and *Marston Moor*. The army of Essex capitulates. Battle of Newbury. Montrose takes up arms.

1645. Death of Laud. Conference at Uxbridge. Self-denying ordinance. *Battle of Naseby*, and of *Philips-haugh*. Bristol lost.

1646. Glamorgan's Treaty. *End of the Civil War*.

1647. *The Scotch bargain*. *The army seize the king*. His flight.

1648. Battle of Preston. Siege of Colchester. *Rump Parliament*.

1649. *Charles I. beheaded*.

CHARLES, whose father had left him in debt, was forced to call a parliament to obtain money for the war. But complaints of grievances were made, and the supplies obstinately refused, though the fleet and army were in want of pay and provisions; and it was dissolved in disgust, Aug. 1625. The king raised money by forced loans, and sent out an expedition under lord *Wimbleton* against Cadiz, hoping to recruit his finances by the plunder of the Spaniards. That plan failed; and Charles was again obliged to call a parliament.

The commons now voted a scanty supply, but protracted the passing of the bill in order to gain time for the redress of grievances. They impeached the duke of Buckingham in spite of the king, who sent two of their leaders to the Tower, but was obliged to release them; and, finding that there were no proofs against the minister, they petitioned for his dismissal. The parliament was instantly dissolved, June, 1626; and money was raised by the old illegal methods of benevolences and forced loans⁸, and also by allowing Popish recusants to purchase toleration.

Charles now found himself obliged to make war with France; for cardinal *Richelieu* had broken the peace with

⁸ Those who refused to pay the loan exacted were imprisoned, or had soldiers billeted in their houses, or were impressed into the sea or land service.

the Protestants which England had guaranteed, and was about to lay siege to Rochelle their stronghold, A. D. 1627. Buckingham was sent out thither: but the inhabitants, mistrusting him, would not admit him within their walls; and he withdrew to the island of Rhé, where he was attacked, and two-thirds of his force destroyed. This failure, the injury to trade from so many foreign wars, and the discontent caused by the king's misgovernment at home, made it dangerous to attempt the extortion of another loan; and it became necessary to call a third parliament, March, 1628.

Though commanded in a menacing speech from the throne to contribute to the relief of the public necessities, the commons began by making a bill, called the *Petition of Right*, against forced loans, benevolences, taxes without consent of parliament, arbitrary imprisonments, the billeting of soldiers, and martial law. For the sake of a grant of five subsidies⁹, Charles gave his sanction to the measure, which, however, he attempted to explain away in a manner which lost him the confidence of the commons, who proceeded to draw up a remonstrance against the levying of those duties on wet and dry goods, which were called tonnage and poundage. To prevent its being presented, the king prorogued the parliament.

In the meanwhile, Rochelle was taken, though two more expeditions had been sent to its relief, the latter of which was much delayed in consequence of the assassination of Buckingham, its intended commander, by one *John Felton*, a Puritanic officer whom disappointment had soured¹.

The next year, when the parliament met again, not only was the question of tonnage and poundage once more brought forward, but religious questions were also dis-

⁹ About two hundred and eighty thousand pounds.

¹ The duke was stabbed with a knife in open day at Portsmouth, Aug. 1628.

cussed. When these debates were at their height, an order to adjourn came down to the commons from the king ; but, as the speaker was leaving the chair, he was forcibly kept in his place, while a short remonstrance was carried by acclamation, which declared that whoever introduced Popery or Arminianism² into England, and whoever advised the levying of tonnage and poundage, or paid those duties, without the consent of parliament, were enemies of their country, March, 1629. The enraged king dissolved the parliament, determined never to call another.

His difficulties obliged him to make a dishonourable peace with his foreign enemies, and again to have recourse at home to arbitrary taxation ; a system which was upheld by prosecutions in the star-chamber, by fines, imprisonment, and the pillory. The same hateful means were employed by the court of high commission (a tribunal composed partly of church dignitaries, partly of laymen high in office, which acted solely upon the authority of the crown), to keep down the insolence of the Puritans ; thus only making them more popular as the champions of religious freedom. His chief advisers³ were sir *Thomas Wentworth*, whom he had bought over from the opposition and made earl of *Strafford*; and *William Laud* the archbishop of Canterbury, who upheld the ceremonies which the Puritans denounced as popish, and introduced some canons in favour of passive obedience to kings, which gave great offence. He was a hot-headed man ; but he has atoned for many faults by reviving learning in the universities, and by the noble firmness which he displayed in adversity.

The first serious opposition to this government was made

² The doctrine of free will. The Puritans, being Calvinists, were Fatalists.

³ His queen, who was a papist, is also supposed to have influenced him.

by *John Hampden*, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, who, though the judges had given an opinion in favour of the legality of demanding "*ship-money*" for the support of the navy from the *inland* counties (which was first done, A. D. 1634), refused to pay it. He demurred to the proceedings against him in the court of exchequer, A. D. 1637, and the case came before the twelve judges, by whom he was cast. His object, however, was gained: for the eyes of the nation were opened to the danger which threatened its liberty.

A more dangerous discontent was stirred up in Scotland, where Charles, departing from the cautious policy of James, attempted to force a whole liturgy upon a people who were not ripe for so violent a change, July, 1637. The Calvinistic preachers sounded an alarm of popery, secure of being countenanced by the nobles; who, though indifferent to their doctrines, had been offended by having to give back part of the church lands which they had seized. Fish-wives and maid-servants were encouraged to stir up the rabble when the prayers were first read at Edinburgh and Glasgow; and as most of the king's ministers were traitors, the malcontents were soon emboldened by their impunity to come forward in more open opposition. Nearly the whole population of Scotland were united into a *covenant* to stand by each other against all innovations, March, 1638; and when the king, after some negotiation, allowed a general assembly of the church and a parliament to be called, the assembly set him at defiance, and abolished episcopacy, the liturgy, the court of high commission, and all the changes which James had introduced.

Having gone so far, the covenanters took up arms against the king⁴, who advanced as far as Berwick to oppose

⁴ *Alexander Leslie*, afterwards earl of *Leven*, an adventurer who had served in the thirty years' war, was their general.

them. Both parties dreaded each other, and a pacification was agreed to, June, 1639. But the covenanters made further changes, by which Scotland virtually became a republic; and the war was renewed. Charles with much difficulty raised an army; and, being without means, he once more called an English parliament, April, 1640. But, seeing that the commons were more bent on redressing grievances than on granting money, he rashly dissolved it.

Having borrowed money from the loyal gentry and clergy, he sent forward an army of about twenty thousand men. The covenanters crossed the border with a much larger force, Aug. 1640, and drove back a detachment of five thousand men under lord *Conway*, at Newburn-on-Tyne; at the news of which, the rest of the royal troops retreated to the borders of Yorkshire, leaving the two northern counties to the mercy of a rapacious enemy. The Scotch were, however, afraid of rousing the spirit of the English; and they offered to negotiate. It was therefore agreed that there should be a cessation of arms, and that a contribution should be paid the Scots during their stay in England.

Charles was now obliged to call his fifth parliament, Nov. 1640. Shortly after it met, *Strafford* and *Laud* were successively impeached. When the former was brought to trial, as *Pym* and his accusers could prove no specific charge of treason, and the ability with which he defended himself made a great impression in his favour, the impeachment was abandoned, and a bill of attainder substituted. By exciting the rabble, they intimidated the reluctant peers and the king himself into acquiescence⁵, May, 1641. The very day that Charles consented to sacrifice his minister,

⁵ *Strafford* indeed wrote to the king that he was willing to be made a victim,—but he was not in earnest.—When Charles gave up this bold, bad man, whose maxim was “Thorough,” he sealed his own doom.

he also sanctioned the fatal bill which provided that the parliament then sitting should not be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, without the consent of both houses.

In the same session, it was voted that no canons could be enforced without the confirmation of parliament; that ship-money was illegal, as well as the levying of tonnage and poundage on the royal authority; and that a new parliament should be elected every three years. The iniquitous courts of the star-chamber and high commission were abolished, and the jurisdiction of the privy-council abridged. A strong Puritan bias was, however, shown by the commons, who encouraged petitions against episcopacy, and framed bills to effect this object, which were thrown out by the peers.

During the prorogation which followed, the king repaired to Scotland, where he found himself quite unable to resist the encroachments of the parliament. He was called home by the dreadful tidings which had come from Ireland,—a country which, under the stern management of Strafford, the late viceroy, had made much progress,—where a civil war had broken out. All the English and Scotch settlements in Ulster were attacked on the same day by the native Irish, who, infuriated by differences of race and religion, and by their wrongs, were guilty of the most horrible outrages, Oct. 1641. The remnant of the English took refuge in Dublin, and were threatened with a siege.

Charles could get no aid from the Scotch parliament, though so many of the victims were their own countrymen; and the preparations made by the English parliament, when it met again, were in reality meant rather against himself. As the hateful severity with which "*malignants*"⁶

⁶ Persons remarkable for their attachment to the crown. The clergy of course were great sufferers. Fifteen hundred of them were eventually deprived of their livings.

had been visited, and the concessions lately made by the king, had made great impression of late upon moderate men ; the popular leaders, to keep up the agitation, drew up a bitter remonstrance, in which every real and imaginary grievance was harped upon, and having carried it by a small majority in the commons, caused it to be printed and published. They also began openly to give out that their own house represented the whole nation, whereas the peers were only private individuals ; and they instigated armed mobs to insult the peers, the bishops, and the royal family.

The bishops were at length deterred from attending in parliament ; and twelve of them protested against the validity of whatever was done in their absence. The peers, not seeing the importance of discouraging every attempt to make packed assemblies by force or intimidation, were provoked by this ill-judged protest, and allowed the twelve bishops to be impeached and committed for high treason.

Hints were now dropped of impeaching the queen ; and Charles, in a moment of irritation, ordered the attorney-general to impeach lord *Kimbolton* (afterwards earl of *Manchester*), and five members of the house of commons⁷, of high treason, Jan. 1642. Having in vain sent a serjeant-at-arms to demand the accused members, he was rash enough to go down to the house with the intention of seizing them by force. His design had been betrayed : they had fled to the city for refuge ; and, altogether baffled, he made a threatening speech, and withdrew amid deep murmurs of "Privilege ! privilege !" The house adjourned for a week, and in the mean time the city was in an uproar ; the usual arts were made use of to excite the populace, by whom the king was insulted in the streets when he returned from the

⁷ Sir Arthur Haslerig, Holles, Hampden, Pym, and Stroud or Strode. Their treasonable correspondence with the Scotch was one of the articles.

Guildhall, whither he had gone to claim the refugees from the magistrates. When the house met, the accused members came by water to resume their seats, escorted by thousands of armed men, with eight pieces of cannon and martial music; and the king, who had fled to Hampton-court for safety, was forced to make the most ample submissions. He refused, however, to give up the names of his advisers, though he was intimidated into giving his consent to the impressment of troops for Ireland by the parliament, and to the exclusion of the bishops from the house of lords⁸.

The *Roundhead*⁹ leaders would not trust him; and, feeling that they had gone too far to be forgiven, they resolved to get the military power into their own hands. They secured the principal sea-ports and arsenals, and passed an ordinance which appointed a number of lieutenants in all the counties. The king, who had retired to York that he might be free from compulsion, now prepared for war, relying on the support of the higher classes, and, after rejecting some proposals which had been made to him for the sake of appearances, raised the royal standard at Nottingham, Aug. 1642.

After an indecisive battle at Edgehill, in which, but for the imprudence of prince *Rupert*¹, the rebel earl of *Essex* would have been defeated, Charles advanced as far as Brentford on the way to London; but, having been delayed, by feigned negotiations, he found the city too well prepared for resistance. The next year, A.D. 1643, the death of Hampden at Chalgrove-field; the destruction of sir *William Waller's* army by the royalists at Devizes; the surrender

⁸ At that time intimidation by means of the mob was employed to drive away the loyalists in both houses from attending.

⁹ So called from the way in which they cropped their hair. The *cavaliers*, or royalists, wore long hair.

¹ Son of the elector Palatine, and nephew of Charles.

of Bristol to prince *Rupert* by the cowardly *Nathaniel Fiennes*; the defeat of the roundhead sir *Thomas Fairfax* at Atherton Moor, by the marquess of *Newcastle* and the men of the northern counties; and the raising of the siege of Gloucester by *Essex*, who also fought the drawn battle of Newbury, in which the high-minded lord *Falkland*² fell, were the principal military events. In the mean time, the popular leaders, (whom public opinion had obliged to make insincere overtures to Charles,) by employing martial law to put down an imaginary plot of *Edmund Waller*³, the poet, and afterwards by arousing the fanaticism of the mob, and enlisting *Essex* on their side, whose army gave him weight, quite succeeded in crushing the moderate party, and silencing every demand for peace. A "solemn league and covenant" between the English and Scottish nations was also devised and effected by them, which proved fatal to the royal cause.

For a Scotch army crossed the Tweed once more under Leslie earl of Leven, their old general, and joined Fairfax and the earl of Manchester⁴ in besieging York. Rupert hastened to unite his forces with those of the marquess of Newcastle; and a great battle was fought at Marston Moor, where his impetuosity, as usual, lost the victory, which was gained for the rebels, after their chief generals had fled, by the courage and energy of *Oliver Cromwell*, July, 1644. This reverse was followed by the loss of the northern counties, which the conquerors could now easily reduce.

In the south, the parliament was less successful. Charles had given Waller a serious check at Cropredy-bridge;

² Like Edward Hyde, afterwards earl of Clarendon, Lucius Carey, the accomplished lord Falkland, had sided with the people until the crown was endangered by their violence.

³ He very narrowly escaped with his life from the court-martial.

⁴ Whom, as lord Kimbolton, Charles had impeached.

Essex was forced to abandon his army in Cornwall ; and Manchester and Waller, after a doubtful affair at Newbury, refused to fight when the king again offered battle. On the other hand, the insubordination and licentiousness of the ill-paid and undisciplined cavaliers made them hateful even to their friends, and prevented them from carrying out any decisive plan of operations.

At the end of the year, Laud, notwithstanding his great age, was impeached. He defended himself with much spirit, and when the case against him broke down, he was atrociously brought to the block by a bill of attainder⁵. The Book of Common Prayer was now suppressed, and an assembly of divines convened to deliberate upon religious matters. But the settlement of the form of Church government to be set up in the room of episcopacy, was no easy task. The Puritans were divided. Besides the *Presbyterians*, were the *Independents*, a powerful minority which would have every congregation a distinct body, free from all outward control, and the minister to be nothing more than an office-bearer, appointed for the sake of order. They would not therefore submit to any compulsory establishment of Presbyterianism, which they held to be an invasion upon the rights of conscience ; and in the end they succeeded in their opposition.

Conferences had been held at Uxbridge between the commissioners of the king and the parliament, A. D. 1645 ; but nothing was concluded. It was now seen that, while the Presbyterians were in favour of a very limited monarchy, the Independents, whose political leaders were Oliver Cromwell, Sir *Henry Vane*, *Oliver St. John*, and Nathaniel Fiennes, were decidedly republican. The late ill success in the south of England was laid by the Independents to the charge of the Presbyterian generals, who,

⁵ He was beheaded Jan. 1645. He died nobly.

holding considerable civil and military commands, were in no hurry, they said, to end the war. Manchester, on this, accused Cromwell of dangerous designs; and the latter revenged himself by the "*self-denying ordinance*," which excluded the members of both houses from all offices. The bill was thrown out; but the measure was carried in another form: Essex, Manchester, *Denbigh*, and several others, had to resign their commissions, and Fairfax was made commander-in-chief. The whole army was remodelled, and care was taken that the majority should consist of Independents. At the request of Fairfax, Cromwell had the good fortune to be exempted by the parliament from the operation of his own law.

In the campaign which followed, Charles, though his army was inferior in numbers, hazarded a battle against Fairfax at Naseby, in which the rashness of Rupert, and Cromwell's presence of mind, once more enabled his enemies to gain a decisive victory, June, 1645. After this heavy blow, the royalists were every where overpowered and dispersed; and Rupert himself ended his career by the surrender of Bristol at the first summons.

Charles's hopes from Scotland, where *James Graham*, marquess of *Montrose*, a high-spirited nobleman who had renounced the covenanters when royalty was in danger, had gained a series of brilliant victories⁶, were also dismally blighted. The alarmed covenanters recalled part of their army from England; and Montrose, whose highlanders had gone back to their mountains to secure their plunder, was surprised by *David Leslie* at Philiphaugh, where he was encamped with only six hundred men, chiefly Irish. He was forced to flee; but most of his soldiers stood at bay, and thus obtained terms of surrender, which

⁶ Particularly over the marquess of Argyle's followers at Inverlockie, and over Baillie at Kilsyth.

were shamefully violated at the bidding of some Presbyterian preachers⁷.

The Irish papists had been secretly negotiated with by the earl of *Glamorgan*, the marquess of *Worcester's* son; and the partial establishment of their religion having been promised, they agreed to send an army to the king's aid, Jan. 1646. It was slowly raised; and when tidings came of the ruin of his cause, it was dispersed. The transactions of Glamorgan became known in England, and were disowned by Charles, though he had given them all but a formal sanction.

The unhappy king, after trying in vain to make terms with the parliament and its generals, fled at length from Oxford, and sought shelter in the camp of his fellow-countrymen, the Scotch, who were besieging Newark, May, 1646. The places which still held out for him, now surrendered, and the civil war was at an end.

But the Scotch did not protect him long. The English parliament having voted that he should reside at Holmby, near Northampton, they tamely delivered him up, and retreated across the border, consoling themselves under the loss of national honour with the sum of four hundred thousand pounds given them as arrears of pay, Feb. 1647⁸.

The Presbyterian leaders in parliament, eager to shake off the yoke of the Independents, insisted on the reduction of the army, part of which was likewise to be sent to Ireland. But the soldiers began to remonstrate, claiming compensation, and all their arrears; and, to make their opposition more effectual, they formed two councils, one consisting of officers, the other, of two soldiers from each

⁷ All the women and children in the camp were slaughtered.

⁸ When at Holmby, the king wrote an able letter to the parliament, offering great concessions. It was favourably received by the lords, but neglected by the commons.

troop and company, called *adjutators*, but better known by the name of agitators. Cromwell, Ireton, and Fleetwood, were sent to restore order by the parliament, which before long was panic-struck by the tidings, that under their auspices a party of horse under cornet *Joyce* had forcibly removed the king from Holmby, June 4, and carried him to the head-quarters of the army; and that the soldiers were marching upon London.

The frightened parliament recalled the vote which had declared the military petitioners to be public enemies; the Presbyterian members accused by the army withdrew from the house; and when, to break its only armed force, the officers demanded that the control of the London militia should be given to persons of their own party, it meekly submitted. The indignant citizens made a covenant in favour of the king, which being voted treasonable, they went down, and intimidated both houses into reversing all their proceedings. But the two speakers, eight peers, and about sixty commoners, hastened down to the army, which entered the city in the beginning of August, and triumphantly reinstated its friends, a solemn thanksgiving being appointed by the vanquished parliament for the restoration of its freedom!

Meanwhile Charles had been taken to Hampton-court, where he was treated with much respect. Fair terms had been proposed to him by the officers; but he had played the dangerous game of negotiating with the opposite party and the Scotch. The army, however, could now do without him; the "*Levellers*," who were for destroying king and monarchy, were fast increasing among its ranks, and he began to fear for his safety. He therefore escaped to the sea-side, when he fell into the hands of *Hammond*, governor of the Isle of Wight, and was confined in Carisbrook Castle, Nov. 1647.

Here the king refused to assent to four bills, in which

the demands of the parliament were embodied; and in return, it was voted that no message should be received from him, and that no address should be sent to him. These proceedings of the Independents caused deep discontent. The Scotch took up arms for the king under the duke of *Hamilton*, in concert with the cavaliers in Wales and other parts of England. But Cromwell and *Lambert* defeated Hamilton at Preston; and after a gallant defence, *Goring* and lord *Capel* surrendered Colchester to Fairfax, Aug. 1648^o. Public opinion notwithstanding was so strong for the king, that the Presbyterian members resumed their seats; the parliamentary commissioners at Newport were instructed to treat with him¹; and even when the rebel generals, after seizing the king, and removing him to Hurst Castle, had surrounded the parliament with their forces, it was voted that the concessions which Charles had now made were of a satisfactory nature. But the next day, colonel *Pride* took possession of the lobby of the house of commons, and arrested a number of the members. Further repetitions of "*Pride's purge*" excluded or imprisoned all but some fifty or sixty furious Independents, afterwards known as the "*Rump*," Dec. 1648.

Meanwhile the bold fanatic Cromwell, the master spirit of the army, had determined to establish his power by shedding the blood of his sovereign. The obsequious Rump declared it high treason for the king to levy war against the parliament, and passed an ordinance for erecting a high court of justice to try "*Charles Stuart*" for that crime. The measure was rejected without a dissenting

^o Fairfax disgraced himself by ordering the execution of the brave sir *George Lisle* and sir *Charles Lucas*.

¹ The king would not abolish episcopacy, alienate the bishops' lands, consent to the punishment of his adherents, nor take the covenant. At Newport, he at the last moment consented to a compromise; but would not altogether yield these points.

voice by the lords; on which they resolved that "the people were the source of all just power," and that they, the commons, "being chosen by and representing the people", had the supreme authority," so that whatever they enacted had the force of law.

They next appointed one hundred and thirty-three commissioners to try the king; of which court one *John Bradshaw*, serjeant-at-law, was to be lord-president. More than half of these judges never attended, among whom was Fairfax himself²; and when the king was brought to trial, it was necessary to have a strong body of soldiers to overawe the people, who were now on his side. Thrice did Charles, when brought before the court, with contemptuous dignity refute its claims to jurisdiction; but he was doomed to die as a tyrant and a traitor.

The king displayed the most lofty courage and holy resignation in his last moments. Attended by the faithful *Juxon*, the deprived bishop of London, he appeared on the scaffold raised in front of his own palace of Whitehall, and died without one sign of fear or weakness, Jan. 30, 1649. Thus perished a man, who, though often misguided and arbitrary as a sovereign, was ever blamelessly pure in his private life, and who was also endowed with great talents, and most refined tastes. He might have saved himself on more than one occasion, had he sacrificed episcopacy to gain over the Scotch and the English Presbyterians; but adversity had taught him to be more sincere and earnest in

² The Rump members were not now the representatives of the people, but the tools of the army. Moreover, Cromwell put the king to death for what he and his party had already done twice—taking up arms against the parliament!

³ When his name was called, his wife said that he had more wit than to be there. When Bradshaw said that Charles was arraigned by the people of England, she cried, "No, not one-tenth of the people."

abiding by his convictions. His judicial murder was a blunder : it made him a martyr⁴.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

A. D. 1649. Mutiny of the Levellers. Battle of Rathmines.
Cromwell invades Ireland.

1650. Death of Montrose. *Battle of Dunbar*.

1651. *Battle of Worcester*. Navigation Act.

1652. The first Dutch War.

1653. Expulsion of the Parliament. The Little Parliament.

After the death of Charles, the commons abolished the house of lords and the office of king, and appointed a council of state. The great seal was also given to three commissioners, styled "Keepers of the liberty of England⁵."

Dangerous mutinies were however stirred up in the army by the "Levellers," who began to mistrust the self-seeking spirit of Cromwell ; but they were energetically suppressed. The lower classes also loudly complained of the free quarters often claimed by the irregularly paid troops ; of the hateful excise upon provisions⁶ ; and of other burthensome taxes, which did not, like the king's exactions, fall chiefly upon the rich ; the royalists, ruined by fines and confiscations, and the disappointed Presbyterians, were

⁴ Charles's great and inexcusable vice, *duplicity*, was in some measure the result of his education. As modern statesmen are often guilty of saying and doing for their party what they would be ashamed of in private life, so it was then wickedly deemed that craft in princes and rulers was allowable, that it was "policy." And it is to be observed that the admirers of Cromwell, much as they abhor it in the king, are very indulgent to all manner of double-dealing, whenever their own hero is at fault.

⁵ The army which kept England in subjection, amounted to about fifty thousand men.

⁶ Even flesh meat was taxed.

bitterly hostile to the new government, and Scotland⁷ and Ireland were at open war against it.

In Ireland, a treaty publicly concluded between the late king's government and the rebels, July, 1646, had been annulled by the pope's nuncio *Rinuccini*, and the Romish clergy; and the marquess of *Ormond*, Charles's lieutenant, in despair had surrendered the castle of Dublin to the parliament. The arrogance and ill management of the nuncio caused him to be driven out of the country at the time of the king's death. The royalists regained the ascendancy; and *Ormond*, once more lieutenant, recovered many of the towns, and laid siege to Dublin.

The English parliament made *Cromwell* lieutenant of Ireland, and sent him over with an army. Before his arrival, the siege was raised; colonel *Jones*, the governor, having sallied forth and defeated *Ormond* at Rathmines, Aug. 1649. *Cromwell* by his vigour, and the unrelenting cruelty with which he massacred the garrisons and population, without distinction of age or sex, of the towns which resisted him, as at Drogheda, Wexford, and elsewhere, soon struck terror into the Irish. His successors, Ireton, his son-in-law, and Fleetwood, who after Ireton's death⁸ married his widow, displayed equal energy. The vanquished people were treated with great cruelty. Even when their lives were spared, their religion was persecuted, and their goods confiscated, the most favoured not being allowed to keep more than one-third of their estates.

The Scotch, whose timid protest against the execution of the king had been treated by the English with contempt, proclaimed his son *Charles II.* as his successor, on condi-

⁷ The execution of the duke of Hamilton at this period highly offended the Scotch.—With him suffered *Rich*, earl of *Holland*, by turns an apostate from both parties, and the high-minded lord *Capel*, March, 1648.

⁸ At the end of the year 1651.

tion of his taking the covenant. Montrose returned to Edinburgh, May, 1650, and attempted to raise the royalists in his favour; but he fell into the hands of the covenanters, and was hanged at Edinburgh. His sufferings were aggravated by insult; but he died nobly. He was infamously disowned by the young king, whom despair had now induced to receive the crown from the Scotch rebels on their own terms. Charles did not get much by his mean subserviency, as he found himself without even the shadow of power, and he was treated with the coarsest insolence.

When it was known that he had landed in Scotland, the English prepared for war. As Fairfax resigned all his commissions rather than serve against his fellow-covenanters, the office of general was given to Cromwell, whom the parliament had already recalled from Ireland. Cromwell marched at the head of sixteen thousand veterans against the Scots, who checked his advance by wasting the country before him, and opposing thirty thousand men under David Leslie, entrenched in a strong position between Edinburgh and Leith. The English suffered so much from sickness, fatigue, and the difficulty of procuring food, that Cromwell retreated towards Dunbar, where his ships lay at anchor. He was pursued by Leslie, who got possession of the heights above the town, and but for the folly of the Presbyterian preachers, would easily have completed his discomfiture. After purifying the camp by a solemn fast, and compelling the young king to make the most abject acknowledgment of the sins of his father and his house, they prophesied victory from heaven, and Leslie was forced to leave his vantage ground and risk a battle. Cromwell had also "sanctified his camp." Officers prayed and preached, psalms were sung on the battle-field itself, and by their valour and enthusiasm, the English fanatics won a glorious triumph over the Scotch, Sept. 3, 1650. Edin-

burgh, Leith, and all the country as far as the Forth, fell into their hands.

Charles himself was not sorry. The marquess of *Argyle* and the covenanters now wanted the support of the moderate royalists⁹; and he was therefore treated with more respect, crowned at Scone, and allowed to join his army, which was strongly posted near Stirling. Cromwell, who was rather a bold than a skilful general, incautiously left the way southward quite open; and Charles astonished him by crossing the Forth, and rapidly marching into England at the head of about twelve thousand men. Cromwell followed him in haste, leaving general *Monk*¹ to finish the conquest of Scotland.

Before the royalists in England could join the king in any numbers, he was overtaken at Worcester by Cromwell and thirty thousand veterans, Sept. 3, 1651. After a brave struggle, most of Charles's followers were either killed or taken prisoners, and he himself had a narrow escape. For forty days, he wandered through the country under various disguises², meeting with the most devoted fidelity; and at length he found a ship at Shoreham, in Sussex, and escaped to Normandy. Little mercy was shown by the conquerors. Not to speak of the execution of the gallant earl of *Derby*, most of the common prisoners were sold to be slaves in the West Indies, or on the coast of Africa³.

The Dutch, before the battle of Worcester, had coldly received the proposal made by St. John of a union, or at

⁹ The "Start," or attempt of the young king to escape to his highland friends, also gave them a lesson not to go too far.

¹ *George Monk*, a royalist officer, who had been taken prisoner by the Roundheads, and had entered their service when the king's cause was ruined.

² The royal oak, in the foliage of which he hid himself a whole day, at Boscobel, afterwards became famous.

³ The Guinea merchants had fifteen hundred men for their share!

least a close alliance, between the two republics ; and in revenge, the famous *act of navigation* was passed, which forbade the importation of goods from Asia, Africa, and America, in foreign vessels, and from any part of Europe, except in ships belonging to England, or to the country of which the goods were the growth or manufacture⁴. Besides the heavy blow thus given to the carrying trade of the Dutch, several of their merchantmen were searched, others taken as prizes, and their ships were made to strike their flags to salute that of England. A collision between the fleets of *Blake* and *Van Tromp* in the road of Dover, whither the latter had been driven by stress of weather, May, 1652, was the signal for a naval war, in which, notwithstanding the gallantry of the Dutch admirals, Van Tromp and *De Ruyter*, the English commanders Blake and Monk, both of them landsmen, had the decided advantage.

By this time, the jealousy between Cromwell and the commonwealth "statesmen" had come to its height. They disbanded one-fourth of the army ; and when called upon by the officers to dissolve the parliament, they named the distant period of three years, and decided on the "admission of neuters," or moderate Presbyterians, at the next election. But Cromwell suddenly entered the house, followed by a company of musqueteers, whom he left in the lobby ; and after sitting awhile, he rose, and charged the members with self-seeking, and informed them that "their time was come, that the Lord had disowned them !" Poor *sir Peter Wentworth*, who said that he had never before heard language so unparliamentary, began an indignant remonstrance ; on which Cromwell cried out that he would

⁴ It has been found impossible to carry out the principle of this act against nations who know how to retaliate by preventing our ships from carrying their produce. It is now quite repealed, A. D. 1849.

"put an end to his prating," and stamping on the floor, called in his musqueteers. After coarsely railing at Vane, *Marten*, *Whitelock*, and others, he caused speaker *Lenthall*, *Algernon Sidney*, and the rest of the Rump, to be driven out of doors⁵. The same day, he likewise forcibly broke up the council of state, of which Bradshaw the regicide was president, April, 1653.

A new parliament of "saints" was now selected out of the candidates returned by the congregational churches⁶. But the "saints," most of whom were anabaptists⁷, quickly brought themselves into contempt; and Cromwell, finding them unmanageable, got his partisans to assemble at an early hour, and before many of the anabaptists had come in, to carry a motion to resign the supreme power into his hands. *Rouse* the speaker, and about fifty members, now left the house with the address to Cromwell: the few who remained were cleared out by the guard, Dec. 1653.

THE PROTECTORATE.

- A. D. 1653. *Instrument of Government. Oliver Cromwell Protector.*
- 1654. Humiliation of Scotland. Peace with Holland. Spain attacked.
- 1655. Revolts put down. The major-generals. Jamaica taken.
- 1656. Treaty with France.
- 1657. *Humble Petition and Advice.* Blake at Santa Cruz. Sexby arrested.
- 1658. Dunkirk taken. *Richard Cromwell Protector.*
- 1659. *Richard Cromwell resigns.*

⁵ When they were gone, seeing the mace, he said, "What shall we do with this fool's bauble! Here, carry it away."

⁶ This was called the *Little*, or *Barebone's* parliament, *Praise-God Barebone* being a leading member in it. There were 139 English, 6 Welsh, 6 Irish, and 5 Scots in it.

⁷ These were led by major-general Harrison.

The *instrument of government* was accordingly drawn up, by which Cromwell assumed the office of lord protector for life. A parliament was to be called every three years, which was to have the right of sitting for five months ; and toleration was to be given to all but prelatists, papists, and blasphemers ⁸.

Scotland, where the general assembly of the Kirk had lately been put down as a nuisance, July, 1653, the moderator and his brethren having been marched out between two ranks of soldiers through the streets, was now made a mere province of England. Its laws and institutions were abolished, and English judges and rulers were set over the natives, A. D. 1654. Cromwell also concluded a peace with the Dutch, who the year before had lost Van Tromp in an engagement with Monk. He found it convenient to give them fair terms.

But when the protector called a parliament, many of the members called his authority in question, and, as soon as five *lunar* months had elapsed, he dissolved it, Jan. 1655. Shortly afterwards, a scheme of the republicans to organize a military insurrection was prevented by the arrest of major *Wildman* and others, and a reckless plan of the royalists to rise in several counties proved an utter failure ⁹. All royalists were iniquitously deprived of one-tenth of their estates ; and a barefaced military despotism was established in England, which was divided into about a dozen districts, each of which had a major-general over it.

The honour of England abroad was nobly maintained

⁸ The Independents, being a minority, were the champions of a *limited* toleration. In New England (which they had colonized in the late reign), when they were the majority, they persecuted.

⁹ *Penruddock* and *Grove*, who had seized the sheriff and assize judges at Salisbury, March, 1655, were beheaded ; several persons were sold for slaves in Barbadoes.

by Cromwell's vigour; yet his foreign policy was a very questionable one. He attacked Spain, the oldest ally of the Commonwealth, thus losing a lucrative trade which the Dutch gained; and, what was worse, by depressing a power already declining, he aided the aggrandizement of France, and disturbed the balance of Europe. He secretly fitted out two expeditions, A. D. 1654; one under Blake, which failed to intercept the Plate fleet, but entered the Mediterranean, and compelled the pirate states of Tunis, Algiers, and Tripoli, to respect the English flag; the other against Hispaniola, under *Penn* and *Venables* whose defeat was partially redeemed by the capture of Jamaica, then an inconsiderable settlement, May, 1655. In the war which followed, Blake, who at Tunis had already taught seamen to brave the fire from a battery on shore, daringly destroyed the Spanish Plate fleet in the harbour of Santa Cruz, April, 1657¹; and with the aid of the French, with whom an impolitic alliance had been made (A. D. 1656), the English were put in possession of Dunkirk, June, 1658.

Want of money forced Cromwell to call another parliament, A. D. 1656. Much management was employed in the elections, and nearly one hundred of the most obnoxious members were afterwards excluded. His authority was confirmed and increased by the *humble petition and advice*, in which he had been recommended to take a higher title. After long consideration, the dread of his republican and fanatical army made him reluctantly give up his favourite project of becoming king, (May, 1657,) and content himself with a splendid inauguration as protector. He was empowered to create an upper house; but when it met in the beginning of the following year, the jealousy of

¹ The gallant Blake died as his ship was entering Plymouth on his return, Aug. 1657.

the commons gave rise to such fierce discussions, that he dissolved the parliament.

Discontent was now universal. Plots against his person had long been rife, in which *Serby*², his late adjutant, and the levellers took part; the pay of his army was in arrear; and he neither dared to call a parliament, nor had credit to raise a loan. Anxiety preyed upon his mind; he could not sleep from dread of assassination, and at length a fever ended his wretched existence, Sept. 3, 1658³.

Strong-minded as Cromwell was, he had not the genius, like Napoleon, to construct any lasting institutions, and the whole work of his life died with him. His system of government, being founded only on brute force and vile dissimulation, had become hateful; and having begun life as an earnest enthusiast for civil and religious freedom, he ended it as a tyrant and a hypocrite⁴.

His eldest son *Richard*, who had none of his talent, was proclaimed protector by the council. He was soon obliged to call a parliament, which the arts of the royalists and republican members rendered exceedingly difficult to manage; and, what was more dangerous, cabals against his authority were formed in the army by Fleetwood, his brave, but weak-minded brother-in-law, and by the bold, brutal *Desborough*, who was secretly guided by the cunning Lambert. Richard's friends, becoming alarmed, carried a resolution in the house of commons against all unauthorized military meetings, and a declaration that the command of the army was to be exercised by the protector. The officers instantly met, and Richard was informed that he must dissolve the parliament. He complied, April, 1659,

² He died in prison, perhaps from violence.

³ The anniversary of his victories at Dunbar and Worcester.

⁴ Among other arbitrary acts, he deprived several cavaliers of the right of being tried by a jury, and erected a high court of justice which condemned them to death.

and feeling that his power was at an end, quietly retired into private life ⁵.

THE ANARCHY.

A. D. 1659. Fleetwood restores the Rump. Booth's revolt. The Rump expelled and restored.

1660. Rising of Fairfax. Monk restores the Long Parliament. Recapture of Lambert. *The Restoration.*

Fleetwood and the officers ⁶ agreed to restore the Rump Parliament. But the attempt of the members excluded by Pride's purge to resume their seats, damaged its moral influence; and the new government was also endangered by the union of the more moderate Presbyterians with the royalists to restore the king. There was to have been a general rising in the summer; but the plan was betrayed to the council ⁷, and sir *George Booth* and the Cheshire Presbyterians, who alone were able to take the field, were easily subdued by Lambert, Aug. 1659.

A vain attempt of the parliament, at the instigation of sir *Arthur Hazelrig* ⁸, to shake off the yoke of the officers, ended in its being forcibly prevented from sitting. Yet before three months were passed, Fleetwood was obliged to resign the office of commander-in-chief on his knees, and the parliament was triumphantly restored. For in Scotland, general Monk, whose intentions all this time were an impenetrable mystery, declared himself the assertor of the ancient laws and liberties; the cry for a free parliament was raised in the city; even the soldiers mutinied,

⁵ His brother *Henry*, the lord deputy of Ireland, a man of more spirit, after a little hesitation, followed his example.

⁶ This government was called the "*Cabal of Wallingford-house*," where Fleetwood lived.

⁷ By sir *Richard Willis*, a man in Charles's employment.

⁸ One of the five members impeached by Charles I.

and marching to the house of speaker Lenthal, in recognition of his authority, saluted him with three volleys of musketry, Dec. 1659.

At this crisis, Lambert was out of the way, having been sent against Monk, who, to gain time, pretended to negotiate. Leaving his head-quarters at Coldstream⁹, Monk now crossed the Tweed, Jan. 1660; and in concert with him, Fairfax with the cavaliers rose and surprised York. Threatened both in front and in his rear, Lambert obeyed the command of the parliament to disperse his army; and Monk, after refusing to proclaim the king, as Fairfax had proposed, continued his march to London.

But notwithstanding all his caution and deep dissimulation, his objection to all oaths and engagements against the house of Stuart excited the suspicion of the parliament; and when the citizens, taught at length by their sufferings to become loyal, had disowned their authority, in order to compromise him, they made him dismantle the city gates. He did it, however, with an ill grace; and the very next day, he openly took part with the citizens, and obliged his opponents to consent to call another parliament. Not long afterwards, he allowed the excluded Presbyterian members to resume their seats in the house, and the power of the Independents fell for ever, Feb. 1660.

In the election which followed, a great majority of cavaliers and moderate Presbyterians was returned. A last effort was now made by Lambert, who had escaped from confinement in the Tower, and was joined by some of the discontented soldiers in Warwickshire; but he was taken prisoner near Daventry by the regicide *Ingoldsby*, now become a royalist. Immediately afterwards, the "Convention"¹ parliament met, in which, to the mortification of

⁹ His own regiment, now the Second Guards, was afterwards called the "Coldstream."

¹ So called, because it was not summoned by royal authority.

the rigid Presbyterians, many of the excluded peers took their seats in the house of lords. The mysterious Monk, who had only treated with the king a few weeks before, at length threw off the mask, May 1, when sir *John Grenville* presented Charles's letters to both houses, and the declaration made by him at Breda, which promised amnesty and toleration².

It was voted by both houses that the government was, and ought to be, in king, lords, and commons; and that Charles should be invited home. Owing to the influence of Monk, no limitations were placed upon his prerogative, as was proposed by that great lawyer *Matthew Hale*, and by *William Prynne*. Charles was not long before he responded to the call. He landed at Dover; and on his birthday, May 29, he made his public entry into London amid the acclamations of his subjects.

CHARLES II.

A. D. 1660. Act of Indemnity.

1661. Savoy Conference.

1662. *Act of Uniformity*. Sale of Dunkirk.

1664. *The Second Dutch War*.

1665. Defeat of Opdam. *The Great Plague*.

1666. The French aid the Dutch. *Great Fire of London*.

1667. The Dutch fleet in the river. *Peace of Breda*. *Fall of Clarendon*.

1668. *Triple Alliance*. *Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle*.

1670. Secret Treaty with France. The Cabal.

1672. The Exchequer shut up. Declaration of Liberty of Conscience. *Third Dutch War*. *Battle of Southwold*. William of Orange heads the Dutch.

1673. *The Test Act*. Shaftesbury disgraced. *Spain and the Empire aid the Dutch*.

² The declaration was artfully neutralized by subjecting it to such limitations as parliament might make.

- A. D. 1674. Fall of the Ministers. *Charles makes peace with Holland.* Buckingham joins Shaftesbury.
 1676. Charles becomes a pensioner of France.
 1677. William of Orange marries the lady Mary.
 1678. *Peace of Nimeguen. Popish Plot. Dandy impeached.*
 1679. The New Council. *Habeas Corpus Act. Exclusion Bill. Bothwell Brig.* Meal-tub Plot. Whigs and Tories.
 1680. Resignation of Russell's party. Stafford beheaded.
 1681. The Expedient rejected.
 1682. The London Charter taken away. Flight of Shaftesbury.
 1683. *Rye-house Plot.*
 1684. Flight of Monmouth. The New Charters.

The chief advisers of CHARLES after his restoration, were *Hyde*, the companion of his exile, now earl of *Clarendon* and chancellor; the duke of Ormond; and Monk, who was rewarded with the duchy of Albemarle. An act of indemnity was passed, from which few were excepted, sir Henry Vane, together with *Harrison*, and eleven other regicides, being all who were put to death in England³; all sales of private lands and judicial acts which had taken place under the Commonwealth were wisely confirmed, to the great discontent of many of the unfortunate royalists; military tenures, and the grievances of wardship and purveyance were abolished; and the greater part of the army was disbanded⁴.

The king restored the ejected clergy, filled up the vacant bishoprics, and ordered the Book of Common Prayer to be again made use of. On the other hand, he

³ Lambert was imprisoned for life, and a few others were either imprisoned or forced to live in exile. In Scotland, the marquess of Argyll and two others were executed. The dead bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw, were taken up and senselessly exposed on a gibbet.

⁴ Some outbreaks of the fanatics in London under *Venner*, Jan. 1661, gave Charles a pretext for retaining about five thousand men as his guards. The guards became the nucleus of a standing army.

issued a declaration, in which he promised to make concessions to the Puritans. But he did not keep his word. A conference on the subject, held at the Savoy, A. D. 1661, between the leading divines of both parties, only widened the breach between them; and when the convocation of the clergy revised the liturgy, most of the alterations were hostile to the Puritans.

The proceedings of the convocation were ratified by the new parliament, which had now been called on the dissolution of the convention, and consisted chiefly of royalists⁵. By the ACT OF UNIFORMITY, May, 1662, the revised Prayer Book was confirmed, and the Puritan ministers required to be episcopally ordained, in consequence of which a large number⁶ of them honestly resigned their benefices rather than disown their principles. These and the rest of the nonconformists were treated with great rigour, being harassed by a series of harsh and cruel laws against the exercise of their worship. In Scotland, episcopacy was established by force, and upheld by persecution.

By a natural reaction, the hypocrisy and fanaticism which had prevailed of late, was succeeded by a period of most abandoned licence. The king himself was a heartless profligate; and his brother *James* duke of *York*, who had a strong predilection for popery, was likewise grossly immoral.

⁵ It is remarked by Mr. Hallam, that this house of commons was "composed in a great measure of the same families, and entirely of the same classes, as the Puritan commons of James I." Nor was the change of feeling confined to the gentry, as may be shown by the conduct of the populace in queen Anne's reign. In fact, it was not till the Church of England had fallen, and full scope had been given to fanaticism, that the eyes of the nation were opened to her real value.

⁶ Said to have amounted to two thousand; but the number is probably somewhat exaggerated. They gave up their livings on St. Bartholomew's day, Aug. 24.

At a time when the strictest economy was required⁷, Cromwell having left the country in debt, the army in arrear, and the arsenals quite empty; Charles recklessly squandered the property of the crown, and the grants of his people, on his pleasures and his mistresses, and was soon obliged to have recourse to expedients which either lessened his popularity, or degraded his government. To the disgust of his subjects, he married *Catherine of Braganza* the popish infanta of Portugal, for the sake of her large dowry⁸; and he likewise sold Dunkirk to the king of France, Oct. 1662.

As he never forgot the unkind usage which he had received from the Dutch during his exile, he engaged in a war with Holland, when the indignation of the English had been roused by the depredations committed on their African and East Indian trade, A. D. 1664. Some of the Dutch colonies were seized; and several fierce naval battles were fought⁹, in one of which, near Lowestoffe, a glorious victory was gained by the duke of York over *Opdam*, who with his ship was blown up in the engagement, June, 1665. About this time, a plague broke out in England, which destroyed about one hundred thousand persons in London alone.

The Dutch called upon the aid of France, which was given them in the following year. But their chief advantage arose from the domestic misfortunes of England. For the country had hardly yet recovered from the effects of

⁷ Six hundred thousand pounds' worth of stores were required; an immense sum for the times.

⁸ By this marriage, England also gained Bombay, in the East Indies, and Tangier; which latter place, on account of the expense of its garrison, was afterwards abandoned to the Moors.

⁹ The duke of York, Monk, Rupert, and *Montague*, earl of *Sandwich*, distinguished themselves on the English side, and *De Ruyter* and *Opdam* on that of the Dutch.

the plague, when more than two-thirds of London was burned to the ground by the great fire, Sept. 1666; and the government now found it so difficult to raise money, that in an evil hour it was resolved to lay up a great part of the fleet in ordinary. The consequence was, that the Dutch under De Ruyter sailed up the river Thames, burned some of the ships of war at its junction with the Medway, and for six weeks insulted the English coast. Soon after this disgrace, July, 1667, peace was concluded with the Dutch and their allies the kings of France and Denmark, at Breda. The terms were fair; and England retained possession of the New Netherlands, to which the name of New York was now given.

To regain the popularity which he had lost, and to gratify a mistress, Charles yielded at length to the instigations of *Villiers*, the profligate duke of *Buckingham*, and dismissed Clarendon, his old benefactor. The fallen chancellor, who had many enemies, was instantly impeached. At the king's command, who had become alarmed at a dispute which arose between the lords and the commons on the subject, he left the kingdom; for which he was sentenced to banishment for life, unless he hastened home to stand his trial. Being prevented by illness, he died an exile a few years afterwards, A. D. 1674.

At this time, Europe was alarmed by the ambition of *Lewis XIV.*¹, who had invaded Flanders, which he claimed from the Spaniards, and had soon reduced many of its

¹ *Lewis XIV.*, when he married the eldest daughter of *Philip IV.* of Spain by his *first* wife, renounced all claim to any part of the Spanish dominions. But as her marriage portion had not been paid, he held that he was no longer bound by this engagement; and when *Philip* was succeeded, A. D. 1685, by *Charles II.*, his youthful son by his *second* wife, he claimed Flanders and Brabant under the law of *devolution*, which in many provinces of the Netherlands gave the right of inheritance to the children of the *first* marriage.

strongest places, A. D. 1667. He also overran Franche Comté in the beginning of the next year. Charles now offered his support to the Dutch; and by the skilful management of his envoy, sir *William Temple*, the triple alliance was concluded between England, Holland, and Sweden, to oblige Lewis to abide by the offers which he had made some months before to the Spaniards, and to force the Spaniards to accept them. The consequence was, that France and Spain reluctantly agreed to make a treaty at Aix-la-Chapelle, May, 1668, N. S., by which Lewis gave up his claims, and restored Franche Comté; but retained his other conquests.

But the English king was not stedfast in this honourable course. His hatred of the Dutch, and his desire of French money, soon led him into secret negotiations with Lewis. These were opened by Buckingham², through *Henrietta* duchess of *Orleans*, Charles's sister, who at length came and paid her brother a visit at Dover³, May, 1670; and a treaty was shortly afterwards concluded for the reduction of the United Provinces. Yet though it was kept secret, it was not the real one. By the advice of the duke of York, who had resolved to profess himself openly a papist⁴, Charles had also engaged to become a Roman Catholic; and that he might do this with safety, Lewis was to aid him with money, and to send over six thousand men, if

² After the exile of Clarendon, and the death of Monk, A. D. 1670, Charles's unprincipled ministry consisted of Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale, the initials of whose names also formed the word *Catal*.

³ She died soon afterwards, and Charles sent for a lady who accompanied her, Louise de Querouaille, whom he made duchess of Portsmouth. This woman used her influence to further the interests of France.

⁴ His first wife *Anne Hyde*, the daughter of the earl of Clarendon, also became a papist a short time before her death, March, 1671.

necessary. The ministers employed in the real treaty, (for Buckingham was not to be trusted,) were the cunning *Henry Bennet* lord *Arlington*, and sir *Thomas*, afterwards lord *Clifford*, both of them converts to Rome. Charles did not, however, keep his word; and his promised conversion was either a trick to get money from France, or on second thoughts he gave up the design for fear of the consequences.

The preparations now made by Lewis for a war with Holland, caused such a panic in England, that Charles easily obtained a grant of 2,500,000*l.* to enable him to fit out a fleet to protect the interests of the country. Before the fleet was ready, the money was squandered, as well as the sums which had been procured from France; and by the advice of Clifford, the exchequer was shut up for a year, Jan. 1572, no payments being made during that time to the bankers who had made advances for the public service. This breach of faith was the cause of many failures, and of great distress.

After a piratical attempt to seize the Dutch Smyrna fleet, which miscarried, Charles joined Lewis in a declaration of war against the United Provinces. The French squadron under *D'Estrées*, and the English fleet under the duke of York, steered for the coast of Holland; but they were baffled by the skill of De Ruyter, who avoided an engagement. When, however, the duke had returned to Southwold bay, to take in men and provisions, De Ruyter suddenly fell upon him. A battle long and bloody was fought, in which the duke and his ships⁵, though surprised

⁵ The duke of York's ship being disabled, he shifted his flag into another; and when that one was also disabled, he again passed under the enemy's fire in an open boat, and hoisted his flag in a third vessel. The vice-admiral, the gallant *Sandwich*, perished in the action, his disabled vessel being destroyed by a fireship. The battle began early in the morning, and lasted till seven in the evening.

and outnumbered, and with wind and tide against them, beat off their assailants, May, 1672. The rest of his fleet having come up, James would have renewed the contest on the following day; but the Dutch fled, and the weather being foggy, they were able to save their disabled ships.

In the meanwhile, Lewis with his army had crossed the Rhine, and overrun a great part of the United Provinces. *De Witte*, the grand pensionary of Holland, was denounced by the frightened people as the betrayer of his native land, and at last was torn to pieces by the rabble; and *William*, the young prince of *Orange*⁶, Charles's nephew, was called to the helm, who by his unshaken firmness retrieved the fortunes of the Dutch. The dykes were cut; the country was laid under water; the aid of Spain and the emperor was obtained, A.D. 1673; and before long, the French were obliged to abandon their conquests.

The attention of the people of England at this time was taken up by the "Declaration of Indulgence," in which the king had suspended the laws against dissent. It was seen at once that its real object was to favour the spread of popery; and the parliament when it met, made such strong remonstrances, that Charles burned the document with his own hand. He also agreed to the *Test Act*, by which all persons holding any public office were obliged to take the sacrament three times a year, according to the rites of the Church of England, and to abjure the doctrine of Transubstantiation, March, 1673. The duke of York now laid down his office of high-admiral, and Clifford that of trea-

⁶ His father *William II.* had been *Stadtholder*, or chief of the Dutch republic; but after his death the office was abolished by the *perpetual edict*. This was now repealed in consequence of William's services, and he became Stadtholder. Charles would have gained over his nephew; but William was resolved to fight for his country, though he had "to die in the last ditch."

surer ; and the command of the fleet was given to Rupert, while sir *Thomas Osborne*, afterwards earl of *Danby* and duke of *Leeds*, was made treasurer.

In all the arbitrary measures of the government, *Antony Ashley Cooper*, originally a roundhead, but now lord *Ashley*, earl of *Shaftesbury*, and chancellor, had hitherto zealously concurred. Taught, however, by what had lately happened, that the king wanted firmness, he leagued himself once more with the popular party, and was turned out of office. Under his management, the parliament (which had been lately prorogued for its violent opposition to the marriage of the duke of York with *Mary d'Este*, a popish princess of the house of Modena,) addressed the king to remove his obnoxious ministers ; and Buckingham was dismissed, Arlington was transferred to the household, and the duke of *Lauderdale* was obliged to confine himself to Scotch affairs, A. D. 1674. Charles was now glad to avail himself of the offers of the Dutch, with whom he made a most advantageous peace. Yet Lewis secretly secured his neutrality in the course of the year, by giving him 500,000 crowns, which enabled him to prorogue the parliament for five months.

Danby, the new minister, was sincere in his aversion to popery, and to the increase of the power of France ; but he found himself thwarted at every step by the inclinations of an unprincipled king, and by the intrigues of an unscrupulous opposition, which was openly joined by Buckingham, and secretly encouraged by Arlington. Neither was he uncorrupt as a statesman : for he continued the infamous system of buying votes in the commons, and of provoking disputes between the two houses, to prevent the passing of obnoxious measures. On the other hand, his opponents were bribed with French gold to embarrass the government ; and even the more honest among the patriots were guilty of furthering the objects, and listening to the sugges-

tions of Lewis XIV., whom they knew to be the worst enemy of their country.

Charles, at length, despairing of aid from his subjects, basely wrote out with his own hand⁷ a secret treaty, by which he became the pensioner of Lewis, and bound himself to enter into no engagements without his consent; Feb. 1676. But the progress of the French arms abroad soon awakened such indignation in England, that the very next year the king was called upon by the parliament to take part with the Dutch. Yet even if he had been better disposed, the tone of the house of commons with regard to money matters was far from encouraging, and in real or pretended anger, he answered the address by proroguing the parliament.

To allay the discontent of the nation, Charles hearkened to the advice of Danby, and gave his niece *Mary*, the eldest daughter of the duke of York, in marriage to William of Orange, the champion of protestantism and the sworn enemy of France; a union fraught with the most important consequences. He also agreed to mediate with Lewis; and finding that the latter treated him with contempt, and carried on the war with greater vigour than ever, he recalled *Montague*, his ambassador from Paris, and made an alliance with the Dutch, Dec. 1677.

Lewis immediately suspended Charles's pension; and after attempting in vain to gain over Danby, made a secret compact with lord *Holles* and *William* lord *Russell*⁸, two of the leaders of the popular party, by which they agreed to

⁷ Danby had made objections to the scheme, so the king acted on his own responsibility.

⁸ Lord Russell, son of the earl of *Bedford*, as well as *Holles*, took no bribes from France. The younger *Ruvigny*, a French Protestant who had connexions in England, was sent over to negotiate with them. The venal patriots were paid and managed by *Barillon*, the French envoy.

obstruct all grants of supplies for the war, in return for which he was to aid them with all his influence in crushing Danby, whose services to the prince of Orange he could never forgive.

When, therefore, the king, on the meeting of parliament, Jan. 1678, stated that he wanted ships and men, a supply was only voted in general terms; and the opposition spent their time in declaiming against the dangers of popery and a standing army, and in attempting to dictate to the king the treaties which he ought to make. French money was equally well employed in Holland, where, in spite of all the zeal of William, a large party were eager to make a separate peace, which would leave Spain and the empire helpless. Meanwhile Lewis took Ghent and Ipres, and the consternation of the allies was complete.

So strong a feeling now prevailed in the country against France, that a poll tax was quickly voted as part of the supply, and Charles sent three thousand men to Ostend, and gave orders for raising twenty new regiments. But he received word from the allies, that they were prepared to make great concessions; on which, with his usual meanness, he forced Danby to write the famous letter to Montague, by which that ambassador was authorized to sell his good offices to Lewis¹. The offer was refused, as the concessions were insufficient; and the king, highly disappointed, prepared for war. But it was soon plain that the Dutch were not to be relied on; and, at the same time, the commons passed a resolution that they would grant no more supplies. Affairs being in this state, he readily engaged for 6,000,000² livres of French money to break up his army, and to allow

¹ This policy had been suggested by Montague himself. The terms were a pension of 6,000,000 livres for three years. To the latter the king added this postscript in his own hand, "*This letter is writ by my order.* C. R."

² £450,000.

Lewis to make his own terms with the allies. Under the same disgraceful influence, the house of commons also voted that the troops should be disbanded. Some months afterwards, treaties between the powers at war were signed at Nimeguen, by which the king of France retained Franche Comté and the barrier towns.

Not long afterwards, England was thrown into a state of frantic excitement by the pretended discovery of the popish plot, to assassinate the king, and to establish popery. The contriver of this charge against the papists was one *Titus Oates*, an infamous wretch, originally an Anabaptist minister, and afterwards a sea chaplain. Dismissed from this employment for his vile conduct, which had lost him more than one curacy, and twice guilty of perjury, he, as a last resource, feigned himself a convert to Rome; but he was such a miscreant, that the Jesuits twice expelled him from their colleges. He now came forward in the character of an informer, and as the nation was possessed with a great dread of the designs of the papists, his gross fabrications were readily believed³. At the instigation of Shaftesbury, the plot was taken into consideration by both houses of parliament; Oates was cried up as the saviour of the nation, and rewarded with a pension of 1200*l.* a year; other informers, equally worthless, were led to follow his example, and were liberally paid; lords *Stafford*, *Powis*, *Arundell*, *Petre*, *Bellasys*, and *Castlemaine*, together with *Coleman*, the duchess of York's intriguing secretary, sir *George Wakeman*, the queen's physician, and a great many more papists, were committed for high treason; and, to crown the whole, when Charles unexpectedly took the part of his ill-used wife, Titus Oates appeared at the bar of the

³ Some ambiguous expressions in a letter of the intriguing *Coleman*; an ill-judged attempt of some of the accused to tamper with a witness; and the fact of sir *Edmond Godfrey* (before whom Oates made his first depositions) being found slain, confirmed the delusion.

house of commons, and accused the queen of high treason. As the juries were prejudiced, and the prisoners and their witnesses were browbeaten by the partial judges, Coleman and many other unfortunate persons were at different times sacrificed as victims to the prevailing madness; but one peer only was convicted, the aged lord Stafford, who after a long imprisonment, underwent an iniquitous trial, and was beheaded, Dec. 1680.

The popular leaders had taken advantage of this excitement to introduce a new test, which declared popery to be idolatry, and excluded the Roman Catholic peers from their seats, Nov. 1678⁴. Great sensation was also made at this stormy time by Montague, who, being disappointed of an office, closed in with the base offers of Lewis XIV., and returning to England without leave, obtained a seat in the commons, and produced the letter which Danby had written, authorising him to sell the king's mediation⁵. Danby was forthwith impeached. He defended himself with spirit, and as the charges did not amount to high treason, the peers voted against his commitment. This decision caused a violent quarrel between the two houses; on which Charles prorogued, and then dissolved the parliament, the longest which ever sat uninterruptedly.

Before the new parliament met, March, 1679, Charles tried to make the duke of York give up popery, and failing, desired him to go beyond sea. The impeachment of Danby being again renewed, he bade him resign his office, and informed the parliament that his minister had acted by his orders, and that he had granted him a pardon. By the advice of sir William Temple, he appointed a new council,

⁴ The duke of York himself obtained an exemption with great difficulty.

⁵ Montague deemed himself safe, as the proofs of his baseness could not be produced by Danby without implicating the king.

in which Russell, Holles, *Essex*, *Sunderland*, and *Halifax*, were included; and he also named Shaftesbury the president, vainly hoping that he would desist from his intrigues. But the commons went on with the impeachment of Danby, even after he had surrendered and pleaded the royal pardon⁶; and without noticing the expedients offered by Charles for the security of religion under a popish sovereign, they brought in a bill to exclude the duke of York from the crown. To the dismay of Shaftesbury, when an inquiry was made into the distribution of the secret service money, Charles suddenly prorogued the parliament. He soon afterwards dissolved it.

In Scotland, where the persecuted covenanters often held armed meetings for worship on the hills, which were seldom dispersed without bloodshed, a rebellion broke out in the west. It began with the barbarous murder of the aged archbishop of St. Andrew's, *James Sharp*⁷; but as little courage or conduct was displayed by the insurgents, it was easily put down by *James* duke of *Monmouth*, the king's illegitimate son. After the battle, or rather the rout at Bothwell Bridge, June, 1679, he wisely released all the prisoners who engaged to live peaceably; an act of lenity which excited the suspicion of the court, as he was known to be closely connected with Shaftesbury and the popular party⁸.

⁶ They also factiously questioned the right of the bishops to vote on trials. On the other hand, they passed the *Habeas Corpus Act*, that great safeguard of liberty, by which no English subject can be sent to a prison beyond sea, and no judge can refuse to any prisoner a writ, by which the jailor is obliged to produce him in court, and to certify the cause of his imprisonment.

⁷ He was hated by the Presbyterians as an apostate from their party.

⁸ Shaftesbury had revived the project of Buckingham, to make Monmouth successor to the throne, on pretence that Charles had privately married his worthless mother *Lucy Barlow* or *Walter*.

Monmouth in a few weeks betrayed his ambitious designs when the king was taken ill. He was therefore deprived of the office of commander-in-chief; and by the advice of several in the council, among whom were Essex and Halifax, the duke of York was ordered to return from Brussels, and allowed to reside in Scotland. Monmouth withdrew to Holland; but soon afterwards, at the instigation of Shaftesbury, he returned without leave, for which he was deprived of all his commissions and employments.

The king had removed Shaftesbury from the presidency of the council; and foreseeing that the newly-elected parliament would strengthen the power of this artful intriguer, he had put off its meeting for a twelvemonth. A number of petitions were now got up against this measure, by which the king was so annoyed, that he published a proclamation, denouncing the manner in which signatures were procured. The loyalty of the country was roused by this appeal. Addresses from the gentry and the merchants poured in daily, expressing deep abhorrence of such practices. The *petitioners* were reproached with being WHIGS, the *abhorrrers* were reviled as TORIES, party names which were soon gloried in^o.

Charles was now emboldened to enter the council, Jan. 1680, and to announce that he had recalled the duke of York. Russell and his party instantly resigned. Shaftesbury renewed his intrigues in favour of Monmouth; attempted to prosecute the duke of York as a recusant; and gained over the influence of the duchess of *Portsmouth*, by threatening to indict her as a nuisance. The king's

This marriage the king solemnly and publicly denied not long afterwards.

^o *Whig*, a term denoting sourness, was originally applied to the covenanting rebels in Scotland; *Tory* was the name given to the outlawed Irish papists, who subsisted by pillage.

attachment to his brother began to waver, and the duke was again desired to leave the country.

It had happened the year before, that one *Dangerfield* had accused some papists of suborning him to get up an imaginary Presbyterian plot, to cover, as he said, a real one to murder the king and Shaftesbury ; but he was infamous for his perjuries, and his intended victims were acquitted. When, however, parliament met, Oct. 1680, he was allowed by the commons to denounce the duke of York as privy to the scheme of "the Meal-tub Plot¹;" and the exclusion bill was revived. It had the support of the prince of Orange's friends ; but it was eloquently opposed by Halifax : the king, who seems at one time to have thought of selling his consent, declared against it, and it was thrown out by the lords.

Shaftesbury now damaged the cause of his party by proposing a bill of divorce, which would enable the king to put away his unfortunate wife, and to marry a Protestant princess². But Charles was not quite so heartless as they were, and he again came forward to save the queen, as he had done at the time of the popish plot, when they had sought her life. Another great mistake of the Whigs, was the illegal attempt to imprison some of the chief "abhorers" for having used their undoubted right of addressing the king. After several persons had been arrested, the commons were set at defiance by a Devonshire gentleman of the name of *Stawell*, and they were forced to desist. They next proceeded to pass some violent resolutions, and to stop the supplies. For this they were prorogued ; on the announcement of which they protested so fiercely, that

¹ So called from the place in which one of the documents was hidden. *Dangerfield* was proved to be an impostor in the house of lords.

² This was also an old plan of Buckingham's.

the king made up his mind to dissolve the parliament, Jan. 1681.

The king now obtained a promise of money for three years from France, by a secret *verbal* treaty, in which he engaged gradually to abandon the Spanish alliance. He also called another parliament to meet, not in London, where Shaftesbury had the support of organized political clubs, but at Oxford. Thither the chiefs of the popular party came attended by armed followers, saying that they were in danger from the papists and the royal guard. When it met, March, 1681, the king, by the advice of Halifax, proposed the "expedient," which was, that the duke of York should be banished for life at least five hundred miles from England, Scotland, or Ireland; and that on the king's death, he should have the regal title, but that the princess of Orange, or the nearest Protestant heir that was of age, should govern as regent. All wealthy papists were also to be banished by name, and their children to be taken from them, and bred up in the Church of England. The expedient was rejected with disdain by the commons, and the exclusion bill revived: they also engaged in a dispute with the lords, for refusing to take into their own hands the trial of one *Fitzharris*, an informer, whom the government was about to arraign for high treason in the King's-bench³. At this crisis, Charles went privately to the house of lords, and unexpectedly dissolved the parliament, a strong measure which saved the country from a civil war. The duke of York would not have shrunk from such a design, and he had a promise of aid from Lewis XIV.

Charles had calculated on the effect which the violence of the Whigs had made on public opinion in his favour.

³ The ostensible ground of the refusal, that *Fitzharris* was not a peer, has been set aside by more modern cases.

The late rebellion had taught most of his subjects to dread revolutionary measures. The prosperity of the country also inclined men to be well-pleased with the present state of things; and notwithstanding his vices, the king's agreeable manners had made him exceedingly popular. The declaration therefore which he published in his defence, and ordered to be read in churches, was well received, and responded to by a multitude of approving addresses.

The enemies of the court were now made to feel its vengeance. Several of Shaftesbury's perjured witnesses, to save themselves, readily came forward to serve the victorious party⁴. Lord *Howard of Escrick*, and Shaftesbury, were arraigned for their late conduct at Oxford; but, more fortunate than the rest, were saved by grand juries returned by sheriffs belonging to their own side. The duke of York was allowed, the year after⁵, to return from Scotland (where his government had been disgraced by the nefarious condemnation for treason of the earl of *Argyle*); the turbulent Monmouth was arrested and held to bail for seditiously parading himself about the north of England; and Shaftesbury fled in despair to Holland, where he died. A heavier blow was struck, when Charles, who had already succeeded in naming the city sheriffs⁶, availed himself of the servility of the judges, and obtained a sentence by which the charter of London was forfeited, June, 1683.

On the other hand, the opposition had become desperate. One *Walcot*, an Irish Roundhead officer, and *Fer-*

⁴ The well-known zealot, *Stephen College*, the "Protestant joiner," who had gone in arms with the city members to Oxford, was iniquitously tried and executed.

⁵ He had a narrow escape when "the Gloucester" was wrecked and 200 men lost, May, 1682.

⁶ Some of the most obnoxious ex-sheriffs, and others of the party, were prosecuted, and very harshly punished.

guson, a Scottish independent minister, having plotted to assassinate the king and the duke of York⁷, their scheme was communicated through lord Howard to Monmouth, Essex, Russell, *Grey*; Algernon Sidney, and *Hampden*⁸, who disapproved of assassination, but resolved upon raising several simultaneous rebellions in England. An insurrection in Scotland was also to be headed by Argyle, who had escaped from prison, and now lived in Holland; and Grey and Russell undertook to procure him money. These plans were betrayed by one *Josiah Keeling*⁹; and lord Howard and others, when arrested, became informers to save their lives. Monmouth¹, Grey, and Ferguson made their escape; Essex committed suicide in the Tower; Walcot and several more were convicted, among whom were Russell and Sidney, who were beheaded, and Hampden, who was heavily fined².

The failure of the Rye-House Plot added strength to the cause of passive obedience and arbitrary power, in favour of which a solemn decree was made by the university of Oxford. The next year, A. D. 1684, most of the corporate towns were intimidated into the surrender of their charters; and new ones were granted which gave the crown great influence, particularly in the elections for members

⁷ One of the places selected for the assassination was the *Rye House*, a farm on the road to Newmarket, whence the whole plot derives its name.

⁸ The grandson of the famous Hampden.

⁹ June 12, the day on which judgment was given against the city.

¹ Monmouth was soon pardoned, and he had the meanness to sign two confessions which implicated his friends. Among those arrested was the notorious Wildman.

² Sidney has become an idol of party admiration; yet it is notorious that in the war of 1664 he offered his services to the enemies of his country, and that after accepting a pardon from Charles, he became a traitor to his government, and the hireling of the French ambassador.

of parliament. Danby and the peers also who had been accused of being concerned in the popish plot, excepting lord Petre, who had died in prison, were admitted to bail. Several persons were prosecuted for seditious and libellous language, and severely punished, among whom was the worthless Titus Oates³. As the last insult to the liberties of England, Charles confided the admiralty to the duke of York, and in defiance of the Test Act, gave him a seat in the council, May, 1684.

These events were followed by the intrigues of the duke and Halifax against each other, in the midst of which the king was seized with apoplexy, from which he partially recovered, but died a few days afterwards, Feb. 1685. Shortly before his death, he was secretly reconciled to the Church of Rome. Profligate men are not unseldom superstitious, and perhaps the only religious impressions he ever felt were derived from a popish mother⁴.

³ This miscreant in the next reign was convicted of perjury, and sentenced to be twice whipped, and to be pilloried five times every year. William III. pardoned him, and gave him a pension.

⁴ Charles's natural talents were great; but they were wasted in indolence and vice. His reign, disgraceful as it was to the people whom he enslaved, was in some respects a period of progress. It was the age of *Newton*, *Milton*, *Dryden*, and of some of our greatest divines: trade and navigation were encouraged; to the administration of the duke of York as high admiral, the English navy is indebted to this hour; the establishment of the Observatory at Greenwich, and the brilliant origin of the Royal Society, are important dates in the annals of science; and not to mention the Habeas Corpus Bill, the expiration of the Licensing Act, A. D. 1679, left the press unshackled. Attempts were made to control it again in the two next reigns; but in the year 1693, it recovered its freedom for ever.

JAMES II.

A. D. 1685. *James II.* Expedition and death of Argyle. *Monmouth's Rebellion.* *Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.*

1686. James suspends the Test Act. Ecclesiastical Commission. *League of Augsburg.*

1687. Rochester disgraced. The Universities attacked.

1688. Trial of the bishops. *The Revolution.* The Act of Settlement, and Declaration of Rights.

JAMES, having become popular ever since the Rye-House Plot, succeeded peacefully; and he also gave much satisfaction by his speech to the privy council, in which he promised to uphold the established constitution in church and state. He soon broke his word. He went in state to mass as king of England; and he continued several taxes on his own authority, until the meeting of parliament, an assembly which proved at first to be very manageable, as the new charters had given the courtiers and the Tories a large majority. Though he treated the commons with much arrogance, they granted him a large revenue for life. The Scotch parliament was as liberal, and even yet more servile.

His government was soon disturbed by the exiles in Holland, who invited the earl of Argyle, and the duke of Monmouth⁵, to be their leaders. Owing to the connivance of the Dutch, they were enabled to plan and to undertake two invasions. Argyle sailed to Scotland, where he found himself opposed on every side by superior numbers; and as he was attempting to reach the Lowlands, his men dispersed, and he was taken prisoner and executed upon his former sentence, June, 1685. Mon-

⁵ Monmouth, who had abandoned his wife, the heiress of *Buccleugh*, was living at Brussels with lady *Henrietta Wentworth*.

mouth in the meanwhile had landed at Lyme, and being joined by many of the common people in the west of England, had assumed the title of king. But he wasted time in indecision; and when at length he tried to surprise the royal army under the earl of *Feversham*⁶, at Sedgemoor, July 6, he met with a complete repulse. He and his friend lord Grey quickly fled, and, after two days, fell into the hands of their pursuers. Grey's life was spared; but Monmouth, who behaved in the most abject manner, was beheaded⁷. The vanquished were treated with great barbarity by colonel *Kirke*, whose martial law was, if possible, exceeded in rigour by the merciless sentences of *Jefferies*, the judge sent down to try the rebels in the disturbed districts. This wretch's cruelty was only checked by his love of bribes; yet he was afterwards made a peer, and raised to the chancellorship.

James was now emboldened to inform the parliament, that as the militia had proved unequal to the defence of the country, he had augmented the regular army; and that he was determined, in spite of the Test Act, to retain the services of several popish officers whom he had commissioned in the time of danger. The commons, alarmed for the safety of the established religion, voted an address against the dispensing power claimed by the king; and the lords were about to follow their example, when the parliament was prorogued in anger, Nov. 1685. At the end of eighteen months, James dissolved it, after he had tried in vain, by repeated "closetings," to gain over the members.

As the existence of the dispensing power was admitted by the lawyers, however they might differ as to its extent, James, after removing four of the judges, got the coach-

⁶ *Duras* earl of *Feversham* was a Frenchman.

⁷ He managed to procure a vain interview with James, by pretending that he had important revelations to make.

man of colonel sir *Edward Hales* to action his master for five hundred pounds, the penalty for holding a commission without having taken the test. Hales pleaded a dispensation under the great seal, and chief justice *Herbert* and ten judges affirmed that there was no law with which the king could not dispense, June, 1686. On the strength of this decision, papists were admitted to offices in England and Scotland, and *Edward Petre*, a Jesuit, was even introduced into the privy council. The command of the forces in Ireland was also given to a papist, *Richard Talbot*, earl of *Tyrconnel*, who remodelled the army by dismissing a number of Protestant officers and soldiers, and filling up their places with men of his own religion. An embassy was sent to Rome; monks and friars were imported; Romish bishops were consecrated in the royal chapel; the pope's nuncio was openly received at court, July, 1687; and in the beginning of that year, the treasurer's staff was taken from the earl of *Rochester*⁸, the staunchest friend of the Church of England in the ministry, because he would not change his faith. This conduct of the king to his own brother-in-law lost him the support of the Tory nobles, who now discovered that religious apostasy was the only road to court preferment⁹.

Had James, like his brother, only attacked the liberties of England, he would have succeeded, so greatly had the nation been disgusted with the misconduct of the Whigs; but by assailing the Church establishment, he roused a spirit of resistance which eventually hurled him from his throne¹⁰.

⁸ Son of the great earl of Clarendon. His elder brother, lord *Clarendon*, was also dismissed from the lieutenancy of Ireland, which was now given to *Tyrconnel*, the commander-in-chief.

⁹ In spite of his religious zeal, James could not for any length of time put away his brazen-faced mistress *Catherine Sedly*, made by him countess of *Dorchester*.

¹⁰ *Lewis XIV.* had lately revoked, A.D. 1685, the *edict of Nantes*,

He allowed converts to Rome to keep their fellowships and livings, and gave the deanery of Christ Church to a papist ; and when the pulpits began to sound the alarm of popery, he ordered *Compton*, the bishop of *London*, to suspend Dr. *Sharp* for a sermon which he had preached. The bishop would not obey the order ; and as the supremacy of the crown had been shorn of all its *extraordinary* powers when revived at the time of the restoration of Charles II., the king found himself unable to enforce it. And therefore, though ecclesiastical courts of high commission, which could fine, imprison, and suspend, were illegal, he had the audacity to create one, July, 1686, on which *Sancroft*, the archbishop of *Canterbury*, excused himself from serving. Its first act was the suspension of the bishop of London for contempt.

The next use made of the commission was to open the universities to the papists. Dr. *Peachell*, master of Magdalen college in Cambridge and vice-chancellor of the university, was suspended by it¹, May, 1687, for refusing to admit *Alban Francis*, a Benedictine monk, to the degree of master of arts, without taking the oaths, as the king had commanded. The university of Oxford, which had hitherto uniformly professed the doctrine of passive obedience, owing to its greater immunities, was not then interfered with : the attack was directed against one of its colleges. The presidency of Magdalen being vacant, April, 1687, one *Anthony Farmer*, a man of bad character, but a recent convert to popery, was recommended to the fellows

by which religious liberty had been granted to the French protestants ; and by a cruel persecution had caused the emigration of multitudes into other countries. The refugees were kindly received in England, and a great dread of the designs of popish kings was excited, which proved most prejudicial to James II.

¹ He was also deprived of the vice-chancellorship, an annual office.

for the office, though he had not the qualifications required by their statutes. The fellows entreated the king to name some more worthy person; and as they received no answer, they made choice of Dr. *Hough*. For this they were summoned before the ecclesiastical commission. The rejection of Farmer was sustained; but a fresh mandate was issued in favour of *Parker*, the new bishop of Oxford, who was suspected of being a papist. The fellows, however, would not proceed to a new election till that of *Hough* should be legally annulled; on which the commissioners, with the aid of three troops of horse, drove them out of the college², and installed *Parker* in the presidency. Their places were mostly filled up by papists; and on the death of *Parker*, the year after, Dr. *Gifford*, a Romish bishop, was made head of the college.

By the advice of *William Penn*³, the quaker, James, having lost the support of churchmen, had sought to win the favour of the dissenters by the declaration of "liberty of conscience," April, 1687, in which he suspended the penal laws; an unconstitutional act for which dissenters joined with the papists in presenting him with thankful addresses. A fresh declaration was now issued, April, 1688, and it was soon ordered to be read in churches; a command which called forth a respectful petition from archbishop Sancroft and six other bishops, entreating to be excused obedience, as they could not in prudence, honour, or conscience, allow of the dispensing power. James in his rage had them committed to the Tower for a high misdemeanour. This charge was dropped, and the bishops were arraigned

² Twenty-five of the fellows, and fourteen of the demies (or foundation scholars), and Dr. *Hough*, were cruelly made incapable of holding any church preferment.

³ The son of admiral Penn, and the founder of the colony of Pennsylvania.

at Westminster hall for having published a libel. The chief justice was about to acquit on technical grounds, when, in an evil hour for the government, the earl of Sunderland, the most corrupt of James's ministers⁴, came forward and supplied the evidence which was wanting; and the argument now turned on the merits of the case. Two of the judges declared against the dispensing power, and the jury acquitted the bishops, June 30. The tumultuous joy which was displayed throughout the country, and even the acclamations of his own soldiers at the news, though he himself was dining in the camp at Hounslow, did not open the king's eyes to the dangers into which he had brought himself; but he had the folly to displace the judges, and to order the clergy, few of whom had read the declaration, to be cited before the ecclesiastical commission.

At this crisis, the birth of a prince of Wales had completed the alarm of the nation, which had hitherto built its hopes on the advanced age of the king, and the prospect of a protestant succession through his daughters. So deep was the feeling of discontent, that the absurd story was eagerly listened to, of James having adopted a supposititious child for the purpose of establishing popery in England for ever,—a calumny meanly encouraged by the prince of Orange, who had long harboured the English and Scotch exiles⁵, and had secretly corresponded with the malcon-

⁴ *Sunderland*, a leading whig of Russell's party, had apostatized, become a papist, a pensioner of France, and the adviser of James's worst measures. When he saw that his master was in danger, he secretly corresponded with the prince of Orange, and after the revolution again figured as a Whig and a protestant!

⁵ One of them was an intriguing Scotchman named *Burnet*, (afterwards bishop of Salisbury,) who was employed in making princess Mary believe that it would be sinful for her as a wife to reign in her husband's lifetime.

tents. Seven of these last, *Sydney*, afterwards earl of *Romney*, the earls of *Shrewsbury*, *Devonshire*, and *Danby*, *Compton*, bishop of London, lord *Lumley*, and admiral *Russell*, now subscribed an address to the prince, inviting him to come over to England with an armed force, and assuring him of the support of the people.

The state of affairs on the continent enabled the prince to make great preparations for this invasion without exciting suspicion. For he had formed, A. D. 1686, the league of Augsburg with the emperor, the king of Spain, and many of the German princes, to check the power of Lewis XIV.; and war was on the eve of breaking out. James, moreover, had refused to join the alliance; and in consequence, the confederates, eager to gain the aid of England through the influence of William of Orange, undertook the defence of the United Provinces during his absence on the projected expedition⁶. For some time, the English king believed that France alone was menaced; and when he found out his mistake, nothing could exceed his dismay. He now tried, but too late, to retrace his steps. The charters were restored to the towns; the wrongs of the Church were redressed; Sunderland and Petre were dismissed; and other concessions made, which of course were coldly received, as they had only been wrung from him by his fears.

After publishing most solemn denials of any design to seize the English crown, William of Orange set sail from Helvoetsluys with a large fleet and a force of 14,000 men⁷.

⁶ James, however, refused to join his fleet with that of France; and so jealous was he of his independence, that when Lewis menaced the States, should they attack his ally, the king of England, he had the folly to disown the alliance.

⁷ He was accompanied by admiral Russell, by Burnet, Wildman, Ferguson (who had also followed Monmouth), and several other Whig exiles; and by six English regiments in the service of the States, which James had recalled in vain.

A storm drove him back ; but he was soon able again to put to sea. Having escaped a collision with the earl of *Dartmouth*, James's admiral, he steered for the west of England, and landed safely at Torbay, Nov. 1688. For some time, so few joined him, that he even thought of publishing the names of those who had invited him over ; but the desertion of lord *Cornbury*⁸ and several officers, and the rising of Danby and others in different parts of the country, revived his hopes. Cornbury's example was soon followed by many more, among whom were prince *George of Denmark* (the husband of the lady *Anne*, the king's second daughter), the duke of *Ormond*, and lieutenant-general *John lord Churchill*, afterwards so famous as the duke of *Marlborough*⁹; and when James, the head-quarters of whose army were at Salisbury, had returned in alarm to London, his spirit was quite broken by the undutiful conduct of Anne, who, instigated by her friend *Sarah lady Churchill*, also abandoned him. "God help me!" said he, "my own children have forsaken me."

The queen and the prince of Wales had already fled to France: he now resolved to follow them. Feversham, his general, was ordered to disband the army ; the writs for a new parliament, which had not yet been sent out, were destroyed ; and leaving his palace at midnight, he threw the great seal into the river, and embarked in a small vessel for France¹, Dec. 1688.

At the tidings of the king's flight, a number of peers met the lord mayor and aldermen at Guildhall, and forming

⁸ Eldest son of the second lord Clarendon.

⁹ *John Churchill* was the brother of James's former mistress, *Arabella Churchill*, to which circumstance he owed his first rise in life.

¹ *Jefferies* tried also to escape ; but he was seized at Wapping, and taken to the Tower, where he died a few months afterwards.

themselves into a council of state, called in the aid of the prince of Orange to settle the affairs of the nation. William advanced as far as Windsor, on his way to London, where the populace had been guilty of several outrages ; when he heard the unwelcome news that James had been stopped, brought back to Feversham, and from thence had returned to London amid the acclamations of the people. The first act of the prince was the arbitrary imprisonment of a peer of the realm, the earl of Feversham, whom the king had sent with the offer of a conference ; his second, to order his Dutch guards to dislodge the English guards from Whitehall, and to make his uncle a prisoner in his own house, James was next awakened in the dead of night, and desired to quit Whitehall for Ham, that he might make room for the prince. He asked rather to be taken to Rochester ; to which William not only gladly agreed, but gave secret orders to the guard, that the way from the king's lodgings to the river Medway should be left open. Though it thus became evident that his flight would be of the greatest service to his enemies, James's dread of foul play at their hands soon made him embark once more for France, whither he arrived in safety, and was generously received by Lewis XIV. And thus ended the reign of this unhappy and misguided prince².

William was now called upon by the council of peers, and also by an assembly composed of all the members of any of Charles II.'s parliaments, who happened to be in London, together with the lord mayor, the aldermen, and fifty of the citizens³, to issue writs for a convention, as the only means of obtaining a legal settlement. Mean-

² His mind had received such a shock, particularly after the desertion of Anne, that his old courage seems from henceforth to have abandoned him.

³ The prince had summoned this assembly to keep the peers in check.

while, another convention, chiefly consisting of Whigs, met in Scotland, which resolved that James had *forfeited* the crown of that country, and invited the prince and princess of Orange to take it.

When the English convention also met, Jan. 1689, the revolutionary spirit was not quite so decided. The commons voted that the king, "having endeavoured to subvert the constitution by breaking the original compact between him and the people; and having violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, had *abdicated* the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant." It was likewise resolved that the government of a popish prince was dangerous. The first resolution was warmly debated in the upper house, which even struck out the clause that "the throne was vacant⁴."

The impatience of William now made him throw off the mask. Knowing that, though the marquis of Halifax and the Whigs were for giving him the crown, Danby was for bestowing it on the princess, and that the more decided Tories were for a regency; he sent for some of the leading men, and told them that "if any persons intended to appoint him regent, they might spare themselves the trouble;" and that he "would never be his wife's subject, nor consent to hold the crown by her apron-strings."

As the "glorious" Revolution could not well go on without the Dutch troops, at this significant hint, the amendments of the peers, which were rejected by the commons, were withdrawn. It was voted by both houses that the prince and princess of Orange should be king and queen, but that the royal authority should be exercised by William alone; and that when both of them were dead, the children of Mary should come to the throne; and that in default of these, the princess Anne, and the heirs of her body, should

⁴ *Deserted* was also substituted for *abdicated*.

succeed before those of the prince of Orange by any future wife.

The Revolution, however, was made of lasting advantage to the country by the spirited conduct of the parliament, which, notwithstanding William's reluctance, insisted in pre-facing this Act of Settlement with the famous DECLARATION OF RIGHTS, of which the chief articles were, that the king cannot suspend, or dispense with the laws ; that to erect courts of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, to levy money, or to keep a standing army without the consent of parliament, and to prosecute the subject for petitioning, are all contrary to law : that no bail nor fine should be excessive, nor cruel and unusual punishments awarded ; that jurors ought to be duly impannelled ; that parliamentary elections and debates must be free ; and that parliaments ought to be frequently held.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

- A.D. 1689. *William and Mary.* Act of Toleration. Presbyterianism established in Scotland. *Battle of Killiorankie.* Siege of Londonderry.
1690. Defeat at Beachey Head. *Battle of the Boyne.*
1691. Battle of Aughrim. Treaty of Limerick.
1692. Massacre of Glencoe. *Battle of Cape la Hogue.* Namur taken. *Battle of Steinkirk.*
1693. Loss of the Smyrna Fleet.
1694. *Triennial Bill.*
1695. *Death of Mary.* Namur retaken.
1696. Barclay's Assassination Plot. Fenwick attainted.
1697. *Peace of Ryswick.*
1698. First Partition Treaty.
1700. Second Partition Treaty. *Death of Charles II. of Spain.*
1701. *Act of Settlement.* *Grand Alliance.* Death of James II.
1702. Death of William III.

Though moderate men of all parties upheld the new government, not only the more violent Tories, afterwards

called *Jacobites*, looked upon William as a usurper, but even the Whigs themselves, when out of humour with their Dutch master, would enter into a base correspondence with the exiled Stuarts.

A dangerous schism was caused for many years in the English Church, by deposing Sancroft and several others of the clergy, because they would not take new oaths of allegiance⁵. A vain attempt was made by the government to alter the Liturgy, on the failure of which a much better measure, the Act of Toleration⁶, was adopted for the relief of the Dissenters. The prejudices of the times were, however, much opposed to it, and to many it gave deep offence.

In Scotland, William, finding that the Episcopal party, were against him, established Presbyterianism. Yet, though the Jacobites were in a minority, they boldly took up arms, and their hero, the ruthless *Graham of Claverhouse*, viscount *Dundee*, at the head of a small army of Highlanders, signally defeated general *Mackay* at *Killicrankie*, July, 1689. But he fell in the moment of victory, and with him died the opposition of the Jacobites in Scotland.

In the meanwhile, James himself landed in Ireland; and as Tyrconnel had driven the Protestants to seek refuge in the fortified towns, and reinforcements were sent over from France, he quickly became master of that kingdom. After holding a parliament, in which a vast number of Protestants were proscribed, he laid siege to Londonderry, which the inhabitants, headed by *Walker*, a warlike clergyman who had raised a regiment in the cause, defended with such desperate courage, that he was obliged to desist.

⁵ Among these "*non-jurors*," were five out of the seven bishops whom James sent to the Tower. Eight bishops, and about four hundred priests, many of them highly distinguished, were deprived.

⁶ The liberty of public worship granted by it was, however, denied to Papists and Socinians.

On the other hand, William, who to disarm opposition at home had sanctioned an Act of Indemnity, and had likewise persuaded the English to become parties to the league of Augsburg, sent his veteran general, the duke of *Schomberg*⁷, into Ireland, and afterwards repaired thither in person. At the river Boyne, where Schomberg and Walker⁸ were killed, he routed the army of James, who fled in despair to France, July, 1690. James's want of firmness so disheartened Lewis, that, though the English and Dutch fleets had been defeated off Beachey Head by *Tourville*, and the French were masters of the sea, no attempt was made to invade England. William was also allowed to return unmolested from Ireland, when he left it in disgust, after having met with a serious repulse at Limerick.

The Irish had indeed of late displayed far more courage than they had shown at the Boyne. But the earl of Marlborough landed with an army, and reduced Cork and Kinsale; and the next year, Baron *Ginckel*⁹ took Athlone by assault, and routed the Irish at Aughrim in a bloody battle, in which *St. Ruth*, their general, was killed, July, 1691. The vanquished made their last stand at Limerick, which, after a siege of six weeks, capitulated. By the treaty of Limerick, the papists were to enjoy an amnesty for the past, and toleration for the future; they were to be restored to all the privileges of subjects, and as many as chose to enter the service of James, were to have a free passage given them. This last article was better kept than the rest subsequently were, and upwards of 10,000 men who passed over to France formed the nucleus of the famous "Irish brigade."

⁷ Schomberg was a French Calvinist, but of German origin.

⁸ He was to have had the bishopric of Derry.

⁹ A Dutchman, afterwards earl of *Athlone*.

But though master of England, Scotland, and Ireland, William found it no easy matter to govern these kingdoms. He had not only to fear the Jacobites, but even the Whigs, whom he had offended by giving his confidence to the Tories, deeming these to be better friends to monarchy. A detestable warrant of his, issued by the advice of sir *John Dalrymple*, his Scotch secretary (who was eager to gratify the cold-blooded malice of lord *Breadalbane*), for the massacre of the M'Donalds of Glencoe¹, and barbarously executed by *Campbell of Glenlyon* (soldiers being employed to butcher those who had hospitably entertained them for weeks in their houses), awakened such universal indignation, that an insurrection was planned in concert with the French. It might even have succeeded, had not admiral Russell² destroyed the fleet of Tourville at Cape la Hogue, May, 1692, and prevented the embarkation of the enemy's troops.

William's foreign wars, and his adoption of the Dutch system of loans, rapidly increased the national debt³; and he governed by balancing parties, lavishing the public money on his supporters, and bribing his opponents. To check these evils by securing a less corruptible house of commons, the Tories revived the old commonwealth law for more frequent elections, which had been set aside at the Restoration; and the Triennial Bill was unwillingly sanctioned by William, Dec. 1694⁴, when his wife was on her

¹ An indemnity had been offered to all the Highland chieftains, who should take the oaths to William before Jan. 1st, 1692. Owing to the severity of the weather, M'Donald had taken the oaths after the appointed time.

² Though Russell was a traitor in correspondence with James, when Tourville had the folly to brave the English fleet, pride made him fight. Yet he took care not to pursue his victory too far.

³ The new system led to the establishment of the Bank of England, A. D. 1694.

⁴ He had refused his consent the year before.

death-bed, from a feeling that it was unsafe to do any thing unpopular at such a crisis. The queen died Jan. 1695, N. S.

The death of Mary was the signal for conspiracies against the life of William, of which the most dangerous was the assassination plot of sir *George Barclay*, a Scotch officer, A. D. 1696. Had it succeeded, the Jacobites would have risen, and the French invaded England. After its detection, William's government was disgraced by the attainder of sir *John Fenwick*, against whom there was no legal proof, because his disclosures had implicated several of the leading statesmen^s.

The king's military exploits abroad were far from brilliant. Namur was taken in spite of all his efforts to raise the siege; and when he tried to retrieve his reputation at Steinkirk, he was beaten, A. D. 1692. The negligence of his admiralty in providing convoys for the protection of trade, caused discontent, which the loss of eighty merchantmen belonging to the Smyrna fleet, which fell into the hands of Tourville, June, 1693, did not tend to allay. When, however, France was exhausted, and her great general the duke of *Luxemburg* was dead, William retook Namur, and gained other advantages, which induced Lewis XIV. to agree to make a general peace at Ryswick, and to acknowledge his title to the English crown, Sept. 1697. Soon afterwards, William was forced by the parliament to reduce his army, and to send away his Dutch guards. He was also made to resume his profligate grants to his favourites, and to the countess of *Orkney*, his mistress.

At this time, the ill health of *Charles II.* of Spain, the last king of the elder branch of the house of Austria, was

He was not privy to the assassination part of the plot. He
had saved William's life in action some years before.

likely to cause a vacancy in the throne of that country, which might disturb the balance of Europe, should a powerful prince succeed to it. William therefore and the Dutch secretly made the *first partition treaty* with France, Oct. 1698, to divide the territories of Spain between the three chief claimants, the king of France, *Maximilian Joseph* (the son of the elector of Bavaria), and the emperor *Leopold*⁶. Charles II. heard of this, and made the electoral prince his heir; but the latter dying, William negotiated the *second partition treaty*, A. D. 1700, which also coming to the ears of Charles II., this prince was so indignant, that he made a will in which he named *Philip* duke of *Anjou*, the dauphin's second son, his heir. At his death, the Spanish people declared in favour of this will, and even William and the Dutch thought it prudent to acquiesce. The emperor, however, disputed it still; and the success of his arms in the north of Italy, whither prince *Eugene* had been sent to conquer Milan, encouraged them to change their policy, and make with him the "grand alliance" to prevent the union of the monarchies of France and Spain, Sept. 1701, N. S.

The English were unwilling to plunge at William's beck into another expensive war; but they were provoked into it by the imprudent generosity of Lewis, who, when James II. died at St. Germain's, where, after the failure of his schemes, he had lived for some years in the practice of devotion, recognized his son as king under the title of *James III.*, Nov. 1701. A bill of attainder was passed

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⁶ Lewis XIV. had married his cousin, the eldest Infanta of Spain; but he had renounced the succession at the time of his marriage. The Bavarian prince was descended from the younger Infanta; but he wanted power to enforce his claims. The emperor claimed as the male representative of the house of Austria. His mother was also a Spanish princess.

against "the pretended prince of Wales⁷," and supplies were voted for the war.

The insult was felt the more, as in consequence of the death of *William* duke of *Gloucester*, the last surviving child of princess *Anne*, an "ACT OF SETTLEMENT" had been made, June, 1701, which gave the reversion of the crown on the death of *Anne* to *Sophia*, duchess dowager of *Hanover*⁸, and to the heirs of her body being Protestants. To this statute there was added, that for every act of the king his ministers must be responsible, and that no pardon could be pleaded against an impeachment in parliament; that no one who took an office or pension from the crown should retain his seat in the commons⁹; that the judges should be appointed for life, and their salaries fixed; that the English nation should not, without the consent of parliament, be involved in war for defence of the foreign territories of their sovereigns; and that whoever came to the throne, should be in communion with the Church of England.

William now made great preparations for the approaching conflict. But his health was failing, an evil aggravated by his habit of drinking too freely, and brought to a crisis by a fall from his horse, which caused the breaking of his collar-bone, and threw him into a fever of which he died, March, 1702.

Though neither a brilliant general, nor a man of striking genius, William had a firmness of soul which made him great. He was a zealous Calvinist, and the decided

⁷ All persons holding any office, ecclesiastical or civil, were to take an oath of abjuration against his claims.

⁸ Daughter of *Elizabeth*, electress Palatine, and grand-daughter of James I.

⁹ This clause was modified, A. D. 1706. Every member of the commons who takes office must vacate his seat. Certain offices are excluded. The Whig ministers of George I. likewise repealed the clause which forbade wars for the sake of *Hanover*.

champion of the Protestant cause ; but, at the same time, it must be allowed that he was the friend of toleration. His private life was bad. He was a selfish and disagreeable man, fond of mistresses, and unkind to his wife, whose spirit he quite broke.

ANNE.

- A. D. 1702. *Anne, Queen of England.* Attack on Vigo Bay.
- 1704. *Battle of Blenheim.* Gibraltar taken.
- 1707. *Union of Great Britain.* Battle of Almanza.
- 1709. Dr. Sacheverel's sermon.
- 1710. Change of Ministry. Stanhope's defeat.
- 1711. Death of Joseph I. Marlborough disgraced.
- 1713. *Peace of Utrecht.*
- 1714. Bolingbroke supplants Oxford. Death of Anne.

Queen ANNE, under the guidance of the duchess of Marlborough, gave her decided support to the grand alliance, which in a few years was joined also by the duke of *Savoy* and the king of *Portugal*. Lord *Godolphin* was made treasurer ; Marlborough ¹, commander-in-chief abroad ; and the offices of generalissimo and high admiral were conferred on her husband, prince George of Denmark.

The taking of Gibraltar by admiral sir *George Rooke*, Aug. 1704² ; the defeat of the French and Bavarians at

¹ Marlborough, now made a duke, had been recommended to the command by the late king, who had dismissed him from his service, in consequence of his having caused the failure of an expedition by betraying it to James II. and the French.

² One of the naval heroes of this reign, was admiral *Benbow*, who, when deserted by the rest of his squadron, fought the French single-handed till he died, A. D. 1702.—This year, sir George Rooke and the duke of Ormond attacked Vigo, and destroyed the French ships of war and Spanish galleons in the bay.

Blenheim, in the same year, by Marlborough and the famous imperialist general, prince Eugene of Savoy; the successes of Eugene in Italy, and of the earl of *Peterborough* in Spain; and, especially, the brilliant victories in Flanders of Marlborough, one of the greatest generals of all ages, over *Villeroy* at Ramilies, A. D. 1706, the duke of *Vendome* at Oudenarde, A. D. 1708, and *Villars* at Malplaquet, A. D. 1709, make this period one of the most glorious in the annals of warfare. Lewis XIV. was forced repeatedly to make offers of peace, making large concessions every time, and at last saw the frontiers of his exhausted kingdom invaded. These terms were rejected from interested motives, through the influence of Marlborough, Eugene, and the Dutch pensionary *Heinsius*, who seemed to forget that the day would come, when the people of England would be weary of the debts and burthens of an expensive war.

Though Tories at heart, Marlborough³ and Godolphin had soon resolved to make common cause with the Whigs, knowing that they would be more hearty in a war with France, against which they had ever borne fierce hatred. They also gave a deadly blow to the hopes of the Jacobites, who had thought one day to see the Stuarts enthroned in Edinburgh, by effecting the union of England and Scotland into the kingdom of Great Britain, Jan. 1707, over which no papist, nor person married to a papist, was ever to be allowed to reign. Sixteen of the Scotch peers, and forty-five of their commoners, were to have seats in the parliament of the United Kingdom; and the respective religious establishments of both countries were also secured. The measure was long unpopular in Scotland, where it was carried by means of the most shameful corruption; yet it

³ Marlborough was also much under the influence of his wife, who was a Whig.

was the source of improvement to that country⁴, and the beginning of her commercial prosperity⁵.

The year of the union was remarkable for the defeat, at Almanza, of the English and Spaniards under Ruvigny, now earl of Galway, and the marquis *De las Minas*, by the duke of *Berwick*⁶, an event which tended greatly to the establishment of the French influence in Spain.

Meanwhile the insolence of the duchess of Marlborough had lost her the queen's friendship, which was secretly transferred to *Abigail Hill*, afterwards lady *Masham*. This person, a poor relation of the duchess, who had procured her a situation in the household, was devoted to the interests of *Robert Harley*, the secretary of state, whose intrigues so alarmed Marlborough and Godolphin, that, by threatening to resign their places, they forced the queen to dismiss him. *Henry St. John*⁷, the secretary at war, and others of his party resigned their offices, and the ministry now became exclusively Whig, A. D. 1708. In the same year, Lewis XIV. was induced by the discontented state of Scotland to send the Pretender thither with a fleet, 5000

⁴ The right of appeal to the English house of lords purified the administration of justice, which family influence had hitherto perverted.

⁵ By opening the trade with England and her colonies. The way in which the Scotch colony in the isthmus of Darien had been sacrificed by William III. to the jealousy of England and Holland, had roused the Scotch to make the *Act of Security*, A. D. 1704; which provided that, unless conditions should be established to secure the religion, trade, and independence of the nation, a Protestant, but *not the same person who shall succeed to the crown of England*, should be elected as sovereign on the queen's death.

⁶ Son of James II., by Arabella Churchill, Marlborough's sister. His opponent, Ruvigny, like himself, was an exile, having been obliged to leave France at the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

⁷ Neither Harley nor St. John were at that time true Tories. Both had a puritanic education.

soldiers, and a supply of arms. But *Fourbin*, his admiral, missed the Firth of Forth where he was to land; and time was thus given to sir *George Byng*¹ to come up with a superior fleet, at the sight of which the attempt was abandoned.

The discontent caused by the increase of the national debt, by the weight of the new taxes² and the way in which the war was protracted, was eventually roused into fury by the folly of Godolphin, and led to the triumph of his enemies. Dr. *Henry Sacheverel*, a man whose violence against Dissenters had made him popular³, when preaching before the lord mayor at St. Paul's, on the anniversary of the Powder Plot, Nov. 5th, 1709, had inveighed against "false brethren," had upheld the most extreme doctrines of passive obedience, and had raised the alarm of the Church in danger. Godolphin, enraged at some allusions to himself, and finding that the law gave him no redress, had him impeached in parliament for maintaining that the revolution was not a case of resistance to the supreme power. This impolitic trial lasted three weeks, during which many Whigs and Dissenters were insulted by the populace, who also burned several meeting-houses, and daily attended the defendant in crowds to Westminster-hall. The peers found him guilty; but they passed a sentence so lenient that it was justly ascribed to their fears. The triumph of the people was displayed in bonfires and illuminations, and in numberless addresses to the queen, denouncing the doctrine of resistance, March, 1710.

¹ Afterwards viscount *Torrington*.

² Particularly the duties on French wines. The favour shown to the strong wines of Portugal, and the encouragement of distilleries by William III., had tended greatly to the increase of drunkenness.

³ His written discourses are without talent; but he seems to have been an effective speaker.

Anne gladly seized this opportunity to dismiss her ministers, Marlborough alone excepted. Harley, who had all along kept up an underhand correspondence with the queen, and St. John now came into power. The former was made chancellor of the exchequer, and then lord treasurer and earl of *Oxford*; the latter, one of the most able and unprincipled of statesmen, became secretary of state. The parliament was dissolved, and a new one summoned, in which the Whigs found themselves a feeble minority.

The new ministry were eager to strengthen themselves by making peace with France, to the great joy of Lewis, who had twice offered to give up every point in dispute, though his pride would not allow him to take up arms against his own grandson, as the allies had required. The victories of Vendome, in Spain, by whom *Stanhope*, the hitherto successful English general, was defeated and taken prisoner, Dec. 1710, had opened another gleam of hope; and not long afterwards, the death of the emperor *Joseph I.*, April, 1711, caused the elevation of his brother the archduke *Charles*, the intended king of Spain, to his vacant throne, a circumstance equally favourable to Lewis, as the actual union of the Spanish territories with those of the imperial house of Austria seemed more to be dreaded than the possibility of France and Spain ever becoming one monarchy.

After some secret negotiation between the French and English courts, preliminaries was signed in which the resignation of Philip was no longer insisted upon. They gave such deep offence to the imperial ambassador in London, that he inconsiderately published them in a newspaper. A great outcry was raised; and the house of lords, instigated by the intrigues of the duke of Marlborough, added a clause to the address to the queen, declaring that "no peace could be safe or honourable, if Spain and the Indies should be allowed to remain with any branch of the

house of Bourbon." The queen deprived Marlborough of all his employments, and, to secure a majority, had recourse to the daring expedient of creating twelve new peers¹.

In the following year, St. John induced Lewis to agree that his son Philip should renounce all claims to the inheritance of France. The duke of *Ormond*, Marlborough's successor, who had for some time kept inactive, was also bidden to separate from prince Eugene and the allies, July, 1712; and, in consequence, these were unable to make head against Villars, who, like another Fabius, had for some time defended the French frontier. It was now seen that England had abandoned the cause of the grand alliance, and most of the parties concerned in it, despairing of success, reluctantly consented to make peace.

By the peace of Utrecht, April, 1713, N. S., it was agreed that Philip V. should have Spain and the Indies, on condition of his renouncing the succession to the crown of France, the rest of the French princes doing the same with regard to Spain. The possessions of the Spanish monarchy in Italy and the Netherlands, were divided among the emperor (who had had the chief share²), the States-general, the duke of Savoy, and the king of Prussia. The king of Portugal, another of the allies, obtained the navigation of the Amazon. Anne's title, and the settlement in

² Prince Eugene visited England to induce the queen to continue the war; but his efforts were vain.

Another important event was the condemnation by the commons of the *barrier treaty*, made by lord *Townshend* in 1709, which foolishly guaranteed to the Dutch Lisle, Tournay, and several other places, at the end of the war; in return for which they were to guarantee the Protestant succession.

³ The emperor, however, was not satisfied, and would not lay down his arms. But he was unsuccessful, and was glad to make peace at Rastadt, March, 1714, N S, on terms a little worse than those which he had refused.

favour of the house of Hanover, were acknowledged by Lewis, who destroyed the harbour and fortifications of Dunkirk, and gave up all claims to Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and St. Kitt's. England also acquired Gibraltar, Minorca, and the *Assiento*, or contract for supplying the Spanish colonies with negroes for thirty years. And thus was a glorious war ingloriously ended at the very moment when France, menaced with invasion, would have been obliged to yield every demand; and all owing to the rivalry of Sarah Jennings and Abigail Hill⁴.

A commercial treaty with France was also negotiated by St. John, which abolished all prohibitions, and conceded all the privileges which on either side had been granted to the most favoured nation. But as only high Tories in those days were for any thing like free trade, the Whigs obtained a majority in the house of commons against the treaty, which was thus lost.

The hopes of the Jacobites had been much raised at the appointment of a Tory ministry; but they were doomed to be disappointed. The queen, though she hated the house of Hanover, was alienated by the steady refusal of the Pretender to give up his religion; and the earl of Oxford, who had actually corresponded with the exiled prince⁵, was only bent on betraying a cause for which at heart he had no love. He made fair promises, but always put off their fulfilment. St. John, now viscount *Bolingbroke*, who had become his rival, was more deeply engaged with the Stuart party, not that he cared for any thing but for his own aggrandizement; and to the alarm of the Hanoverians, the command of the forces was entirely in the hands of the Jacobite duke of Ormond and his creatures.

⁴ The duchess of Marlborough and lady Masham.

⁵ So had Marlborough and Godolphin, but with hardly more sincerity.

At length, by a series of intrigues and the aid of lady Masham, Bolingbroke got his old colleague, the lord treasurer, disgraced. But before a new ministry was formed, the queen, whose declining health had greatly suffered from the quarrels in her cabinet, fell into a lethargy. During an interval of the disease, she gave the treasurer's staff to the duke of Shrewsbury; and to crown the dismay of Bolingbroke, the dukes of *Somerset* and *Argyle* entered the council chamber without being summoned, and took their seats. The example of the two dukes was followed by other Whig privy councillors, and every precaution was now taken to ensure the succession of the house of Hanover. As soon therefore as the queen was dead, Aug. 1, 1714, *George Lewis*, elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king of Great Britain, and all Bolingbroke's hopes of power were at an end.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

GEORGE I.

A.D. 1714. *George I.*

1715. Committee of Secrecy. *Battle of Sheriff-Muir*. Surrender of the Jacobites at Preston.

1716. The Pretender leaves Scotland. *The Septennial Bill*.

1718. *Quadruple Alliance*. Death of Charles XII.

1720. *South Sea Bubble*.

1723. Exile of Atterbury.

1724. Ministry of Walpole.

1725. *Treaties of Vienna and Hanover*. Macclesfield fined.

1727. Siege of Gibraltar.

The new king gave his favour entirely to the Whigs, who, when the new parliament met, eager for revenge, moved for a secret committee to inquire into the negotiations connected with the late peace; and in consequence, Bolingbroke, Ormond, and Oxford were impeached for high treason, A.D. 1715. The two former fled beyond the

sea; but Oxford stood his ground, and after nearly two years' imprisonment in the Tower, succeeded in obtaining a trial⁶. The commons quarrelled with the peers on this occasion; and, as they would not appear, he was set at liberty.

The Pretender not only thus gained the services of Bolingbroke as his secretary of state, which, however, he had not the sense to appreciate, and of the duke of Ormond; but his cause was also espoused by the earl of *Mar*, the late secretary for Scotland, and other Tories whom the government had disgusted. Yet he could get no aid from France; for neither Lewis XIV., nor the duke of *Orleans*, who after his death became regent for Lewis XV., would risk any thing⁷. In spite, however, of this discouragement, the earl of *Mar* proclaimed James VIII. in Scotland, Sept. 1715, and being joined by the marquis of *Tullibardine* and several of the northern chiefs, was soon master of a great part of the Highlands. But the duke of *Argyle*, though at the head of a much inferior force, encountered him at Sheriff-Muir, Nov. 13, and, notwithstanding the defeat of his left wing, had so far the advantage that the rebels were discouraged, and many of them began to forsake the cause. The important town of Inverness was also seized for the government by *Simon Fraser*, lord *Lovat*, a man of infamous character, but of great influence in the Highlands, who had more than once been a traitor to both parties.

⁶ Such sympathy was shown him by the people, that the Whigs passed the well-known *Riot Act*, by which if any persons to the number of twelve should continue together one hour, after being required to disperse by a magistrate, and after hearing the act read, they should be guilty of felony.

⁷ The prospect of a long minority, Lewis XV. being an infant, had made the French court thus anxious for the continuance of peace.

The duke of Ormond, in the meanwhile, had landed in the west of England ; but as the Jacobite leaders, on whom he had depended, had been all arrested, he was forced to return. In the north, however, Mr. *Foster*, a Northumbrian gentleman, *Ratcliffe*, lord *Derwentwater*, and others, rashly took up arms. They crossed the border ; and then, being reinforced by some highlanders, marched southwards into Lancashire, hoping to be joined by the papists in that county. But they were soon invested at Preston by the king's troops under *Willes* and *Carpenter*, and obliged to surrender at discretion, Nov. 14, 1715.

Notwithstanding these reverses, the Pretender proceeded to Scotland at the end of the year. He was taken by his adherents to Perth, which he quickly left on the approach of Argyle, now joined by 6000 Dutchmen, and escaped with Mar to France, Feb. 1716. The rest of his followers rapidly retreated northwards, and then dispersed, the leading men embarking for the continent. About thirty persons were executed for this rebellion, among whom were lords *Derwentwater* and *Kenmure* ; and about a thousand more were transported to North America⁸.

By this time, the Whigs had become so unpopular, that they dreaded the results of the approaching election. They therefore enacted the *Septennial Bill*, which extended the duration of parliament to seven years ; an excellent measure, had it been only prospective. As this was not the case, it was an unscrupulous stretch of power, since no member could rightfully sit beyond the time for which he was elected by his constituents.

The peace of Europe having been disturbed by the ambition of Philip V. of Spain, who had tried to seize the

⁸ Foster escaped from Newgate ; and lord *Nithsdale*, one of those condemned to die, was enabled by his wife, who changed clothes with him, to get away from the Tower.

regency of France, that he might employ her resources in conquering the dominions which Spain had lost at the late peace; the duke of Orleans formed the quadruple alliance of England, Holland, and the empire with France, for the maintenance of the treaty of Utrecht, Aug. 1718, N. S. After a short struggle, during which sir George Byng defeated the Spanish fleet off Sicily, Philip was forced to give up his dangerous designs⁹.

During the war, A.D. 1719, the South Sea Company¹ was empowered to buy up the national debt, by which arrangement the government was to be enabled to reduce the rate of interest. As the directors of the company were to raise money by selling shares of its stock, false reports were spread by them of its profits, and multitudes were allured to buy the shares at prices far above their real worth. Before long, the "bubble burst," and thousands of dupes were ruined.

The public credit was, however, restored by the wise measures of the parliament, which also expelled the chief delinquents from the house of commons, and applied their ill-gotten wealth to the relief of the sufferers. Mr. *Aislaby*, the chancellor of the exchequer, and other ministers of the crown, were among those who had been thus convicted, and the earl of *Sunderland*, who was now at the head of the government, had a very narrow escape². So thoroughly corrupt were the times!

⁹ He also dismissed his adviser, cardinal *Alberoni*, who, besides this scheme, had formed a project for uniting Sweden and Russia in a league with the Pretender. *Charles XII.* of Sweden was to invade Scotland as his ally; but he was killed at the siege of Frederickshall, and the whole plan fell to the ground.

¹ It had the *assiento*, which in peace-time enabled it to carry on a contraband trade with Spain. The *South Sea scheme* was borrowed by its projector from the *Mississippi scheme*, by which, about the same time, *John Law*, a Scotch adventurer, nearly ruined France.

² No less than 574,000*l.* stock had been employed in buying the

The Jacobites endeavoured to take advantage of these exposures ; but all their plots were betrayed. Several of the chief agents were seized, and *Francis Atterbury*, the eloquent but intriguing bishop of Rochester, against whom there was no legal proof, was impeached in parliament, and banished for life³, May, 1723. The clergy indeed were chiefly Jacobites ; and it now became the policy of the Whig government to weaken the influence of the Church of England at home, and to discourage it in the colonies.

At this time, England was governed by a few powerful families, the owners of rotten boroughs and patrons of close corporations, which also enjoyed a monopoly of the royal favour. The chief adviser of the crown was sir *Robert Walpole*, who had succeeded *Sunderland* as first lord of the treasury, A.D. 1724. This able minister was honourably distinguished for his wise love of peace ; but he would too often sacrifice the interests of England for the sake of Hanover, rather than offend the king ; and, what was worse, he ruled by means of a system of barefaced corruption. It was his maxim that " every man had his price."

A treaty concluded at Vienna between Spain and the empire, Sept. 1725, not only caused much alarm to George I., but also, by the establishment of the East India Company at Ostend, and the privileges granted to subjects of Austria in their trade with Spain, excited the commercial jealousy of England, France, and Holland. These states formed with Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia, a counter-

aid and connivance of a few influential persons. Some years later, A. D. 1725, the earl of *Macclesfield*, another minister, was impeached for corrupt practices as chancellor, and fined 30,000*l*. *Walpole* himself, in the late reign, had been expelled the house, and imprisoned on a similar charge.

³ The mean *Bolingbroke*, for certain secret services, was now allowed to return home.

- league at Hanover ; which soon led to a collision, of which the chief circumstance was the siege of Gibraltar, which the Spaniards tried in vain to recover, A.D. 1727. In the mean while, George I. died suddenly when on a journey to Hanover, June, 1727.

This prince was not deficient in the chief virtues of his family : he was prudent, courageous, steady in his friendship, and true to his word. On the other hand, he was an unkind father to his only son, and likewise a thorough libertine, and a cruel husband. His neglected wife *Sophia*, the heiress of Zell, whose conduct seems rather to have been imprudent than guilty, was kept shut up in prison for thirty-two years, till she died.

GEORGE II.

A. D. 1727. *George II.*

1729. *Peace of Seville.*

1731. *Treaty of Vienna.* Charitable Corporation.

1733. Excise Bill.

1737. Quarrel with the Prince of Wales. Death of Queen Caroline.

1739. *War with Spain.* Expedition to Porto Bello.

1740. *War of the Austrian Succession.*

1742. *Fall of Sir Robert Walpole.*

1743. *Battle of Dettingen.*

1744. Trials of Lestock and Matthews. Open War with France.

1745. *Battle of Fontenoy.* *Rebellion in Scotland.* Battle Preston Pans.

1746. Battles of Falkirk and Culloden.

1748. *Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.*

1751. Death of Frederic Prince of Wales.

1752. New Style.

1755. Defeat of Braddock.

1756. *Seven Years' War.* Minorca taken by the French.

1757. *Ministry of Pitt.* *Clive founds the Indian Empire.* Convention of Closter Seven. Battle of Rosbach.

A. D. 1759. Quebec taken. Battle of Minden.

1760. Death of George II.

The differences with Spain were settled before long by the peace of Seville, Nov. 1729, which was afterwards confirmed in a second treaty made with the emperor at Vienna, March, 1731. The latter then agreed to dissolve the Ostend company, on condition that England guaranteed the *pragmatic sanction* by which he had settled the succession to his hereditary dominions⁴ on his daughter *Maria Theresa*.

Great indignation was now awakened in England by the failure of the "Charitable Corporation." No less than 500,000*l.*, five-sixths of its capital, were found to have been embezzled: suspicion in consequence attached itself to some of the first characters in the country, and six members of the house of commons were actually expelled. Two years afterwards, A. D. 1733, by the arts of faction, the nation was roused to fury against the excise bill of sir Robert Walpole⁵, and an excellent measure was dropped. This minister's troubles were increased by the fierce quarrel which broke out between *Frederic*, prince of *Wales*, and the king his father, A. D. 1737; and about this time, the death of the queen, *Caroline of Anspach*, deprived him of his firmest friend. She was a person of great talent; and though George II. was in many respects an unfaithful husband, he had so high a regard for her, that he was almost wholly guided by her advice.

Walpole's influence was still great with the king. But the same impatience of an equal which had made him throw out his colleague and best friend, lord *Townshend*, A. D. 1729, had caused him to offend *William Pulteney*

⁴ Hungary, Bohemia, Austria, the Netherlands, Milan, &c.

⁵ His plan was to substitute an excise on tobacco and other articles, when sold, for the old custom-house duties.

and other able Whigs; and these, strengthened by the countenance of the prince⁶, by the support of the noble-minded sir *William Wyndham* and the Tories, and of late by the eloquence of England's greatest orator and statesman, *William Pitt*, formed an opposition, which, at length, proved irresistible. Much as the minister loved peace, he was now unable to prevent the nation from engaging in a foolish war with Spain, in consequence of the outcry raised by persons connected with the contraband trade with her American colonies. As none but Spaniards were allowed to trade thither, vessels termed *guarda costas* were stationed along the Spanish American coasts, to prevent the forbidden traffic; and these were accused of treating English seamen with great barbarity, and even interrupting the fair trade of the British West Indies. Walpole tried to settle matters by means of a convention treaty; but he was forced to break it off and declare war, Nov. 1739; N. S. Admiral *Vernon*, who had boasted in parliament that he could reduce Porto Bello with six ships, was taken at his word; and he gallantly fulfilled his promise. But an expedition against Carthagena two years afterwards under Vernon and general *Wentworth* failed, through want of concert between the sea and land forces.

Walpole, however, still clung to office, until the result of a general election forced him to retire with the title of earl of *Orford*, Feb. 1742. He managed very artfully to sow division between his enemies and the Tories, who had been their staunch friends; and he also escaped the prosecution with which he had been threatened. His rival Pulteney became earl of *Bath*; but, as he had pledged himself not to take office, he sank into insignificance.

Not long before the fall of Walpole, the death of the

⁶ The mischievous advice of Bolingbroke was also given to the prince and the faction.

emperor *Charles VI.*, Oct. 1740, caused a general war in Europe. Notwithstanding all the guarantees given to the pragmatic sanction, *Frederic II.*, the young king of Prussia, seized Silesia; the elector of *Bavaria*⁷ overran Bohemia, and was strongly supported in his claims by the French; similar pretensions were made by other powers; and but for the aid of George II.⁸, and above all, the loyalty of her Hungarian subjects, Maria Theresa would have been stripped of all her father's hereditary dominions.

The most important events in this war to England, were the glorious but fruitless victory of Dettingen, June, 1743, at which the king himself was present; the defeat of *William*, duke of *Cumberland*⁹, and the allies by count *Saxe* and the French at Fontenoy, A. D. 1745; and the family compact between the French and Spanish kings to restore the Stuarts. The French fitted out a large armament for the invasion of England; but a storm which shattered some of their ships, and the appearance of sir *John Norris* with a large force, defeated the scheme, A. D. 1744. The combined fleet of France and Spain was also attacked off Toulon by *Matthews*, the English admiral, and was worsted, though the victory was not as decisive as it ought to have been. This was owing to the backwardness of *Lestock*, the second in command; yet such is the unfairness of faction, that when the matter was referred to a court-martial, the latter was acquitted, and the brave *Matthews* dismissed the service!

It had soon been in the power of Maria Theresa to make

⁷ Elected emperor as *Charles VII.* After his death, *Francis of Lorraine*, the husband of Maria Theresa, ascended the imperial throne, Sept. 1745.

⁸ George II. however, as elector of *Hanover*, had been forced to conclude a treaty of neutrality with France.

⁹ The king's son. *Lewis XV.*, the French king, was present at Fontenoy.

an advantageous peace ; but success had made her unreasonable, a circumstance which caused the war to become unpopular in England, and encouraged the Jacobites to renew their intrigues. Prince *Charles*, the Pretender's son, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine¹, and a few followers, boldly landed in the north of Scotland, July, 1745 ; and being joined by *Cameron of Lochiel* and a few Highland clans, he burst upon the Lowlands, and entered Edinburgh in triumph. Sir *John Cope*, the king's general, who had retreated before him at first, being reinforced by some of the Highlanders of his party, now advanced to oppose him, and was utterly defeated at Preston Pans. Such was the panic which ensued, that had it not been for the zeal and the firmness of *Duncan Forbes of Culloden*, the president of the court of session, who had much influence in the Highlands, the whole of Scotland would no doubt have fallen under the power of Charles Stuart.

Instead of being able to improve his victory, the young prince was obliged by his adherents to waste time in Edinburgh, in vain attempts to take the castle. At length he prevailed upon them to march with him into England ; and at the head of less than 6000 men, many of them ill-armed, and without artillery, he penetrated as far as Derby, Dec. 1745. Great was the consternation in London, and the danger of the government² ! But at this important moment, the Highland chiefs lost confidence : to the disgust of the prince and of their own followers, they insisted on retreat-

¹ He was attainted for his share in the last rebellion, and his younger brother had succeeded to the duchy and estates of *Athol*.

² It is now known that several of the English Jacobites, who for many years had been cold in the Stuart cause, were about to declare themselves ; that the fidelity of the troops at Finchley, whom the king had bravely resolved to head, was not to be depended on ; and that the French, who had strangely neglected the young adventurer, were preparing to support him in earnest.

ing, though retreat was become more difficult than advance. For they had left behind them the duke of Cumberland, who with the troops from Flanders, and some thousands of foreign mercenaries, was posted at Lichfield; and also another army of 14,000 men, under general *Wade*, which was marching through Yorkshire to oppose them. Yet, though hemmed in by superior numbers, impeded by the destruction of bridges and roads, and harassed by the enemy's cavalry, the Highlanders reached Scotland without losing more than fifty men.

After his return, Charles levied a heavy contribution from the Whig city of Glasgow, and attempted to reduce the castle of Stirling, Jan. 1746. General *Hawley*, who had often boasted that he could easily scatter the rebels, came to its relief; but he was shamefully beaten at Falkirk, and the siege was only raised by the approach of the duke of Cumberland with an overwhelming force. The Stuart prince withdrew beyond the Spey, whither he was followed by his adversary. An engagement was rashly hazarded by the Highlanders on an open plain, and with a superior army well supplied with artillery and cavalry, in both of which they were deficient. A quarrel about precedence among the chiefs sealed their doom; and at the battle of Culloden Moor the Highland array was broken and dispersed, April, 1745.

Never was rebellion more cruelly punished³! Neither on the field, nor in the flight, was quarter given. Even when they had disbanded, and fled to the shelter of their mountain homes, the rebel clans were hounded out by the king's soldiers; the whole country was wasted with fire

³ The noble-minded Duncan Forbes in vain protested against this butchery, and his heart broke at the triumph of his own party. His humanity was visited upon his family. For not a penny of the large sums which he had spent to uphold the government in its distress, was ever paid back.

and sword; and the women and children who escaped immediate death, were left to die by thousands of cold and hunger on the barren heath. In the midst of this desolation, the prince himself for five months wandered a wretched outcast; and, after many a hair-breadth escape, he was taken on board a French privateer, and landed safely in Brittany. A price of 30,000*l.* had been set on his head; but not a Highlander was mean enough to betray him.

About seventy of his followers were executed in different parts of England, among whom were the earl of *Kilmarnock*, the brave lord *Balmerino*, the old fox *Lovat*, who in spite of all his cunning had committed himself on the rebel side, and *Henry Ratcliffe*⁴. *Tullibardine* died in the Tower, and numbers were transported beyond sea. To break the power of the Highlanders, clanship was wisely abolished, and even the use of the national dress long prohibited.

The war on the continent still continued, the advantage being chiefly on the side of the French. But the downfall of their party in Holland, when the prince of Orange became Stadtholder⁵, 1747; some reverses in Italy, and the destruction of their maritime power and commerce, by the victories of *Anson*⁶ and *Warren* off Cape Finisterre, and of *Hawke* and other naval commanders, changed the state of affairs, and made them wish for a general peace, which was agreed to at Aix-la-Chapelle, Oct. 1748. England on this occasion restored Cape Breton and her other conquests, but recovered Madras; and no mention was made

⁴ Brother of the unfortunate earl of Derwentwater. Like *Tullibardine*, he had been engaged in the rebellion of 1715.

⁵ This office had been vacant ever since the death of William III., A.D. 1702.

⁶ Lord *Anson*, when commodore Anson, had distinguished himself by the capture of the rich Spanish galleon, or treasure ship, during a voyage in which he sailed round the world, A.D. 1744.

of the right to navigate the American seas without being subject to search⁷.

The reconciliation was not sincere : *Dupleix*, the French governor of Pondicherry, which he had gallantly defended against admiral *Boscawen*, formed a grand scheme for the conquest of the whole of the southern part of India, which would have endangered the factories and the trade of England in that country. And in North America, the French allied themselves with the savage tribes, and, by making a chain of forts to connect Canada with Louisiana, threatened the very existence of the English colonists, now beset on all points by land. At length, attacks were made on the boundaries of Virginia and Nova Scotia, which led to open war. *Boscawen* was sent to intercept the French fleet on its way out, A.D. 1755 ; but he was baffled by the thick fogs off Newfoundland, and only took two ships. Attempts were also made against some of the forts, most of which were failures ; particularly that of major-general *Braddock* against Fort du Quesne, on the Ohio. Brave but ignorant, like most British officers of his day, *Braddock* was too proud to listen to the advice of the celebrated *George Washington*, a militia colonel ; and, carelessly advancing into the woods, he fell into an ambuscade of French and Indians, and was slain. Five hundred men perished with him⁸, July, 1755.

George II., eager to protect Hanover, made a subsidiary

⁷ The next year was remarkable for the marriage act, which prevented the clandestine marriages hitherto so common ; the game laws ; and the bill for naturalizing the Jews. This last measure caused such commotions, that it was repealed in the following session.

⁸ The provincial troops behaved very well on this occasion, and the colonists were led to form a contemptuous opinion of the British army, which afterwards greatly encouraged them to revolt against England.

treaty with the Russians, which, however, called forth so strong a protest from the king of Prussia, that he thought it better to make an alliance with the latter, Jan. 1756. But to his dismay, Austria, which had not forgiven the loss of Silesia, instantly formed a league with France ; and, as it was joined by Russia, Saxony, and Sweden, a general war broke out.

The king's ministers, *Pelham*, duke of *Newcastle*⁹, and secretary *Fox*, afterwards lord *Holland*, were highly unpopular ; the disasters which now followed, hurled them from their seats. Frederic of Prussia was indeed victorious over the Austrians and Saxons ; but the French took Minorca from the English, and were successful in America. In India, where Dupleix's schemes had been defeated some years before (chiefly owing to the achievements of *Robert Clive*, a youth who had left his desk in the company's counting-house, to become the most renowned of its generals), a dreadful calamity had happened in Bengal¹.

The surrender of the strong fortress of St. Philip at Port Mahon, in Minorca, had raised such an outcry, that the ministers threw the blame on the hon. *John Byng*², the admiral who had been sent to relieve it. Awed by the strength of the French fleet, he had not landed troops on the island ; and in an engagement which afterwards took place, remembering the fate of Matthews, he did not follow up the success which the division under rear-admiral *West*

⁹ This veteran statesman, a compound of cunning and folly, had become prime minister on the death of his brother Mr. *Pelham*, A.D. 1754.

¹ Fort William, or Calcutta, had been taken by one of the native chiefs, and one hundred and forty-six persons were confined all night in the black-hole of the fort, at the hottest season of the year. The place was only eighteen feet square ; and in the morning, only twenty-three were alive, most of whom died afterwards of putrid fevers.

² The son of admiral George Byng, lord Torrington.

had gained, but withdrew as if defeated. He was found guilty by a court-martial of not having done his utmost, and sentenced to be shot. He died bravely, March, 1757.

Before the trial and death of Byng, the ministry had resigned, and William Pitt was secretary of state, and the real head of the government. He instantly sent away the foreign troops which they had called in to defend the country; and he encouraged and carried the Militia Bill, which they had caused to be rejected. But when he and his friend *Legge* opposed the king's continental policy in the council, they were dismissed from office, to which, however, in two months, they were restored in deference to the addresses of the people, June, 1757.

Nothing could be more gloomy than the state of affairs. Frederic of Prussia, who had gained a victory over the Austrians at Prague, had been obliged to retreat from Bohemia; and, while his dominions were overrun in every direction by his numerous foes, he was deserted by his only ally. For the electorate of Hanover was in the occupation of the French; and by the secret orders of George II., the duke of Cumberland, who commanded the Hanoverian army, signed the convention of Closter Seven, by which his force was to be distributed into cantonments, and the enemy agreed to abstain from acts of violence while in possession of the country³. An expedition against the French naval port of Rochfort also failed; and in America, the British arms were covered with disgrace.

But now was the good fortune and the genius of Pitt about to revive the glory of England. This very year, the brilliant victories of Clive in Bengal had laid the foundations of her Indian empire. During the next, A.D. 1758, the French coast was repeatedly insulted, though not

³ The duke patiently bore all the obloquy, so high was his sense of filial duty. The Convention was signed in Sept. 1757.

always with impunity ; the island of Cape Breton, and several of the forts in North America, were reduced ; and the settlements on the river Senegal in Africa swelled the list of the British conquests. In 1759, the islands of Goree and Guadaloupe were taken ; the strong city of Quebec surrendered soon after the glorious victory gained on the heights of Abraham by major-general *James Wolfe*⁴, who, to the great loss of his country, had just lived to behold his triumph, and before many months the whole of Canada was lost to France ; at sea, the battles won by Boscawen and sir Edward Hawke, the latter off a lee shore near Quiberon, saved England from an invasion in favour of the Pretender ; and, in India, Surat was conquered, and the attempts of the eccentric and unfortunate *Lally* to subject Madras and the settlements in the Carnatic, were defeated. This war ended in the siege of Pondicherry, which surrendered to colonel, afterwards sir *Eyre Coote*, Jan. 1761.

In Europe, in the mean while, Frederic of Prussia, by three great victories over the French, Austrians, and Russians, had greatly retrieved his affairs. The first of these successes, the utter rout of the French and Imperialists at Rossbach, Nov. 1757, encouraged the Hanoverian troops to rise up against the French, who had not faithfully kept the convention of Closter Seven, and to drive them out of the electoral dominions. Pitt, who had formed a coalition with Newcastle, now thought it expedient, notwithstanding all his former declamations against continental alliances, to subsidize the Prussian king ; and also to send British troops to reinforce the Hanoverian army under prince *Ferdinand of Brunswick*. These had a share in the battle

⁴ This great military genius was not more than thirty-three when he died, Sept. 13, 1759. His adversary, the brave and skilful *M. de Montcalm*, also fell in the battle.

gained at Minden, Aug. 1759⁵. A series of reverses and victories followed, in which the enterprise, the fortitude, and the resources of Frederic were strikingly displayed.

In the midst of these successes, George II. died suddenly, Oct. 1760, and was succeeded by his grandson, *George* prince of Wales⁶, who, being born and bred in England, gloried in the name of Briton.

GEORGE III.

A. D. 1760. *George III.*

- 1761. Bourbon Family Compact. Pitt resigns.
- 1762. War with Spain.
- 1763. *Peace of Paris*. John Wilkes.
- 1765. Stamp Act.
- 1770. Lord North minister.
- 1773. Riot at Boston.
- 1775. *Revolt of the American Colonies*.
- 1776. Declaration of Independence.
- 1778. France joins the Americans.
- 1779. Spain joins the Americans.
- 1780. "No Popery" Riots. Holland openly joins the Americans.
- 1781. Surrender of Cornwallis at York Town.
- 1782. Fall of Lord North. Irish Parliament independent.
Victory of Rodney. Grand attack on Gibraltar.
- 1783. *Peace of Versailles*. The United States recognized. Coalition ministry. India Bill. William Pitt minister.
- 1786. Impeachment of Warren Hastings [trial began 1788].
- 1788. The King's illness. Regency Bill.

⁵ This victory would have been more decisive, had not lord *George Sackville*, the commander of the allied cavalry, who was on ill terms with prince Ferdinand, neglected his duty when required to pursue the flying enemy.

⁶ Son of Frederic, prince of Wales, who had died March, 1751. The year afterwards, Sept. 14, 1752, the *new style* was introduced into England, which was the corrected calendar of pope Gregory XIII., made Oct. 15, 1582.

- 1789. *The French Revolution.*
- 1793. *Lewis XVI. beheaded. War with France.*
- 1794. *Lord Howe's Victory.*
- 1796. *War with Spain.*
- 1797. *Battle of Cape St. Vincent. Bank prohibition. Mutiny at the Nore. Battle of Camperdown.*
- 1798. *Irish Rebellion. Battle of the Nile.*
- 1799. *Taking of Seringapatam. Buonaparte repulsed at Acre.*
- 1801. *Union of Great Britain and Ireland. Pitt resigns. Battle of Alexandria. Bombardment of Copenhagen.*
- 1802. *Peace of Amiens.*
- 1803. *War with France renewed. Battle of Assye.*
- 1804. *Napoleon Emperor.*
- 1805. *Battle of Trafalgar. Battle of Austerlitz.*
- 1806. *Death of Pitt. The Talents. Death of Fox. Battle of Jena.*
- 1807. *Slave Trade abolished. Attacks on Turkey, Egypt, Buenos Ayres, and Denmark.*
- 1808. *The Peninsular War. Convention of Cintra.*
- 1809. *Battles of Corunna and Wagram.*
- 1810. *Lines of Torres Vedras. Madness of George III.*
- 1811. *George Prince of Wales Regent.*
- 1812. *Death of Perceval. War with America. Battle of Salamanca. Burning of Moscow.*
- 1813. *Battles of Vittoria and Leipsic.*
- 1814. *Abdication of Napoleon. Pacification of Paris. Congress of Vienna.*
- 1815. *Battle of Waterloo.*
- 1816. *Expedition to Algiers.*
- 1817. *Death of Princess Charlotte.*
- 1819. *Currency Bill.*
- 1820. *Death of George III.*

The new reign began with the overthrow of the French power in India, and the capture of Belleisle, A. D. 1761. Negotiations for peace were begun, but they were broken off; and it transpired that a league termed the *family compact* had been made between the Bourbon sovereigns of France, Spain, and Naples. Pitt advised the striking a

decisive blow against Spain at once, and on the rejection of this bold measure resigned his office. The war with Spain was soon found to be unavoidable, and was declared in the beginning of the next year. The ministers acted with great vigour. Their steady ally, the king of Portugal, was effectually defended; Martinique, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent in the West Indies, were wrested from France; and Spain had to mourn the loss of Manilla and the Philippines, and also the capture of the strong and rich city of Havannah. In Germany, the secession of Russia when *Paul* became emperor, together with Sweden, from the Austrian alliance, saved Frederic from ruin, and enabled him to triumph over his foes.

The enemies of England and Prussia now began to wish for peace, and circumstances enabled them to obtain favourable terms. GEORGE III. at his accession had been anxious to break through the system of his predecessors, by which the whole power of the country was at the disposal of a few Whig families; and, in like manner, Pitt had been wont to employ men of all parties. After the resignation of this great minister, the old duke of Newcastle endeavoured to revive the Whig monopoly, and to destroy the influence of *John* earl of *Bute*, who had the king's confidence, and had gained the support of the Tories. Foiled in his purpose, he retired from office with his adherents, and joined with the discontented friends of Pitt in an outcry against the royal favourite, who, by his gross partiality to his Scotch countrymen, had laid himself open to attack. If the war therefore continued, the difficulty of raising supplies would probably force Bute to resign his power.

Bute therefore readily agreed to the peace of Paris, Feb. 1763, by which England kept Canada, Cape Breton, and other districts and islands in North America, Africa, and the West Indies, but restored Martinique, Guadeloupe, Goree, Belleisle, and Pondicherry, to France.

Spain also recovered Havannah and the Philippines, but ceded Florida, and abandoned several obnoxious claims⁷. The treaty was unpopular in England, and the minister thought proper to retire into private life. At this period, one *John Wilkes*, a profligate and profane demagogue, began his notorious career of opposition to the king and his government, in which the ill-judged conduct of the ministry towards him often gave him the advantage.

In the year 1765, the *Stamp Act*⁸ of Mr. *George Grenville*, Bute's successor, which formed part of a scheme for taxing the North American colonies, called forth such indignant remonstrances, that the next ministry, that of the marquis of *Rockingham*, repealed it. Pitt was shortly afterwards made earl of *Chatham*, and induced, as keeper of the privy seal, to take part in the government. But he did not long remain in the cabinet: his health was gone, and he was become more haughty and unyielding than ever.

Fresh taxes were attempted to be laid on the Americans, who protested against the authority of a parliament in which they were unrepresented; and even when most of these were given up by lord *North*, who was made prime minister, A. D. 1770, that upon tea was retained. This caused such discontent in America, that, when ships laden with tea arrived at Boston, the people rose tumultuously, and threw the cargoes overboard, Dec. 1773. The colonists assembled in a congress at Philadelphia, and not only petitioned in strong language against the measures adopted by the government to enforce its authority, but even prepared for resistance.

Though great were the parliamentary efforts of Chatham⁹

⁷ Frederic of Prussia also made peace with Maria Theresa at Hubertsburg.

⁸ A bill for imposing stamp duties in the North American colonies.

⁹ Though favourable to the liberty of the colonies, Chatham was

and *Edmund Burke* in favour of conciliation, neither the king nor the English nation would retrace their steps. Before long, a civil war broke out in the colonies, April, 1775 ; and, in the following year, the colonists published a declaration of independence, and renounced their allegiance to the monarchy of England, July 4, 1776. Notwithstanding the energy of general Washington, their heroic leader, and the little ability displayed against them by the English commanders ¹, the insurgents on the whole were worsted in the contest, until their cause was espoused by France, Feb. 1778 ². The next year, Spain likewise declared war with England ; and the Dutch so openly took part with the Americans, that it was at last found necessary to chastise their insolence ³.

The French, at first, had taken some of the West India islands ; but their progress at sea had been checked by the gallant exertions of *Byron*, *Hood*, and *Rodney*. They, however, took Minorca, and gave efficient aid to the Americans, who still continued to have as many reverses as victories, but whose spirit was unbroken. At length, the confederate army, under Washington and the *Marquis de la Fayette*, compelled a division of the British army under

opposed to their independence. He was arguing strongly against it in the house of lords, when seized by his last illness, A.D. 1778.

¹ At one time, there are said to have been more Americans in arms for the king, than there were against him.

² This treaty was negotiated by the well-known *Benjamin Franklin*, who, unlike Washington, had been the enemy of England from the first.

³ This last war was declared A.D. 1780, a year remarkable for tumults in Scotland, and for the dreadful riots in London, in which several popish chapels and private houses were burned and pillaged, and many lives were lost. These outrages were instigated by lord *George Gordon*, a crazy fanatic, who was at the head of the Protestant associations, which the relaxation of the penal laws against the papists had suddenly called into existence.

lord *Cornwallis*, which amounted to about 6000 men, to surrender at York Town in Virginia, Oct. 1781.

Though, in a military point of view, this success was less important than the similar advantage gained by the Americans over general *Burgoyne* at Saratoga, exactly four years before, its political effect was immense. In the English house of commons, the friends of the American cause had much increased of late; and among the nation at large, a strong feeling had arisen against the vain continuance of an expensive struggle, which the tidings of this disaster tended greatly to confirm. The war was condemned in a resolution of the house of commons; and lord North resigned his power, and was succeeded by the marquis of Rockingham, March, 1782. The latter dying very soon afterwards, the earl of *Shelburne* became prime minister, much to the disgust of *Charles James Fox*, the son of lord Holland, who retired from the cabinet, and went again into opposition⁴.

A glorious naval victory was now gained in the West Indies over count *de Grasse* and the French, by Rodney, who had the boldness to adopt the untried plan of breaking the enemy's line, April, 1782. In Gibraltar likewise, which had been closely besieged for some years, the heroic general *Elliott* repelled a grand attack of the French and Spaniards, and destroyed their formidable floating batteries. The boldness of lord *Howe*, who in the presence of a superior fleet threw succours into the place, also put an end to the hopes of the besiegers.

All parties being well weary of war, a general peace was concluded at Versailles, Sept. 1783, in which the independence of the American states was recognized; France gained Tobago, and recovered Pondicherry, St. Lucia, and Goree; and Spain was left in possession of Minorca and Florida.

⁴ At this crisis, the Irish parliament succeeded in throwing off its dependence on the English legislature.

While the treaty was negotiating, it was denounced in England by Fox, who had formed an unprincipled coalition with lord North, a man whom he had often branded as the sworn enemy of his country; the ministry were forced to resign, and Fox and North came into their places, and ratified the preliminaries which they had so loudly condemned.

Though he had declaimed against abuses when out of office, Fox did not display much zeal for reform when in power; except in the case of India, which was misgoverned by the company, then a mere mercantile association. Yet his disinterestedness became very questionable, when he brought in a bill which would have transferred the whole power and patronage of the company to a commission of seven of his friends. The king saw that this enormous accession of influence would give Fox a virtual dictatorship; and, to save the crown and the country from the rule of a permanent oligarchy, he somewhat unconstitutionally called upon his friends among the peers to throw out the bill.

The coalition was now dismissed from office, and *William Pitt*, Chatham's second son, became prime minister in the twenty-fifth year of his age⁵. For some months, he stood alone against the overwhelming efforts of a resolute and well-banded party. But he had foreseen that a factious opposition would damage his opponents in the end; and when at length public opinion had changed in his favour, he dissolved the parliament, and obtained such a majority in the next, that the power of the Whigs was broken for many years.

Pitt reformed the Indian system by giving government a control over the proceedings of the company's directors.

⁵ He had already been chancellor of the exchequer under lord Shelburne, and, while in opposition to the coalition, had brought in a reform bill which they defeated in the upper house.

On the other hand, the opposition endeavoured to make an impression upon the public mind by impeaching *Warren Hastings*, the first governor-general of India, of misrule and oppression, A. D. 1786. His trial, famous for the indignant eloquence of Burke and *Sheridan*, did not begin till two years afterwards; and it was purposely protracted to such a length, that though acquitted, A. D. 1795, he found himself a ruined man⁶.

A great change had lately taken place in party politics. The Whigs gradually abandoned the old principles of the Revolution⁷, and courted the favour of the people by concessions to democracy; while the Tories, who had become warmly attached to the king⁸, adopted many of the doctrines which they had once denounced. When the king was seized with a fit of madness, Nov. 1788, and a regency became necessary, another singular display of inconsistency was seen. Fox and the Whigs took the high monarchical view, and asserted the inherent right of the heir apparent⁹ to the regency; Pitt and the Tories gave themselves out to be the friends of the privileges of parliament, and were carrying a bill which bestowed a restricted regency on the prince, when the king happily recovered, April, 1789.

⁶ His rule, though arbitrary and unscrupulous, was in many respects highly beneficial. With Clive and the marquis of *Wellesley* (under whose brilliant administration, *Tippoo Saib*, the son and successor of the formidable *Hyder Ali*, and the ally of republican France, was overpowered, and Seringapatam, his capital, taken, May, 1799), he holds the first place among the great men who have governed India.

⁷ These were the exclusion of papists; opposition to France; and commercial restriction.

⁸ The childless state of the young Pretender (who died A. D. 1788), and of his brother *Henry*, cardinal of York (who died A. D. 1797), had quite put an end to the hopes of the Jacobites.

⁹ The prince of Wales at that time happened to be on their side.

This year, the French revolution began. The new-born liberty of France soon broke out into sanguinary outrages: Lewis XVI., an ill-fated sovereign, who had yielded to every demand of his people, was brought to the scaffold, Jan. 1793; and a sort of crusade was proclaimed against monarchy, which led to a general war in Europe.

Pitt had not only to keep down the revolutionary spirit at home, but he also found it impossible to preserve peace with France. He therefore sent the duke of *York*¹ with an army to aid the Austrians in the Netherlands, where, however, the allies were completely beaten. An attempt was then made by the duke to defend Holland; but many of the people declared in favour of the French, and the Stadtholder was obliged to escape to England, Jan. 1795. The naval operations of Britain in this war were more successful. Lord Howe gained a great victory over the French fleet off Ushant on the "glorious first of June," A. D. 1794, and the enemy's possessions in the East and West Indies were successively reduced. The Cape of Good Hope and the Island of Ceylon were also taken from the Dutch, A. D. 1795. And when Spain joined with France in hostility to England, her fleet was utterly defeated by sir *John Jervis*², off Cape St. Vincent, Feb. 1797, and she likewise lost Trinidad. At the end of this year, the Dutch fleet was overpowered at Camperdown by admiral, afterwards lord *Duncan*.

Great panic meanwhile had been caused at home by the suspension of payments in gold at the bank, and by the mutiny of the ships of war at the Nore. The next year, A. D. 1798, in which the country was menaced with invasion, and a dangerous rebellion was suppressed in Ireland, the power of Britain in the east was endangered by the

¹ Prince *Frederic*, second son of the king.

² Afterwards lord *St. Vincent*.

expedition of the French, under *Napoleon Buonaparte*³, against Egypt. An English naval force, commanded by the renowned *Horatio Nelson*, arrived too late to prevent his landing with his army; but his fleet was attacked and destroyed at the battle of the Nile, Aug. 1, 1798. And when he extended his views to Syria⁴, and besieged Acre, sir *Sydney Smith*, a naval officer, threw himself into the place with a body of seamen and marines, and enabled the Turks to repel his most desperate efforts, May, 1799.

The first day of the new century, Jan. 1, 1801, was appointed for the union between Great Britain and Ireland, a measure which Pitt had carried in spite of much opposition. Four prelates, twenty-eight lay peers, and one hundred commoners, were to represent Ireland in the united parliament. In another project of his, that of emancipating the Roman Catholics from all civil and political disabilities, the minister was less successful, as the king deemed it inconsistent with his coronation oath. He chose therefore to retire from office⁵.

Pitt's last important act had been to send a fleet into the Baltic, under sir *Hyde Parker* and lord Nelson, against the "armed neutrality," which was a league formed with Sweden and Denmark by Paul, the emperor of Russia⁶, to

³ This great warrior was a Corsican, who, as a young officer of artillery, had raised himself into notice when the English were forced to evacuate Toulon, Dec. 1793. Two years afterwards, he won a series of brilliant victories in Italy. When on the way to Egypt, he treacherously seized Malta.

⁴ The unsuccessful invasion of Holland by the duke of York in conjunction with the Russians, took place this year.

⁵ *Henry Addington* (afterwards lord *Sidmouth*), one of his followers, succeeded him, March, 1801.

⁶ He was offended with the English because they kept Malta, which they had lately taken from the French.

prevent the search of neutral vessels. The bombarding of Copenhagen by Nelson ¹, in spite of the ships and batteries which defended it, April 2, and the assassination of the emperor Paul at this crisis, soon brought this war to a close. The English army now somewhat recovered its reputation by driving out of Egypt the troops which Buonaparte had left. Sir *Ralph Abercrombie*, the brave commander of the expedition, was mortally wounded in an engagement which took place shortly after his landing, March, 1801.

Peace was now concluded, March, 1802, at Amiens with Buonaparte, who had become first consul of France. With the exception of Ceylon and Trinidad, England was to restore her conquests ². Many of these were soon recovered, and Malta was retained; for disputes arose, and the war was renewed with France and Holland, May, 1803. Troubles also broke out again in Ireland, and England was once more threatened with invasion ³.

The next year, in the course of which Napoleon was declared emperor of France, and Spain was at war with England, Pitt resumed his power ¹. His health was failing fast, and he died, Jan. 1806, almost broken-hearted at the defeat of his allies the Austrians and Russians, by Napoleon, at Austerlitz, Dec. 1805. A few weeks before this disaster, the French and Spanish fleets were annihilated at the battle of Trafalgar, Nelson's last and greatest victory.

¹ He took no notice of Parker's signal to recall him. This year was also remarkable for the gallant conduct of admiral sir *Jama Saumarez* (afterwards lord *de Saumarez*) at Algeziras.

² Among these were Minorca and Pondicherry, as usual.

³ Hanover was reduced by the French.

¹ The opposition deeply grieved him by impeaching his friend lord *Melville*, for misapplication of the public money when he was treasurer of the navy, A.D. 1805. Melville was acquitted the next year.

He fell in the action, and the command was taken by his gallant and accomplished friend *Collingwood*².

On the death of Pitt, who was indeed a great statesman and financier, but, unlike his father, an indifferent war minister, lord *Grenville*, Fox, and their friends came into power. Fox did not outlive his rival many months. He was a man of great genius, and of a kindly disposition, qualities which were unhappily neutralized by the immorality of his life. He had formed too generous an estimate of Napoleon, and had denounced the war against him; but, when he himself in his turn received the fair-spoken overtures of the French emperor, he soon found that peace was impossible.

In the mean time, the Cape had been retaken, and the victory of sir *John Stuart* over a larger French force at Maida in Calabria³, began to revive the confidence of the nation in the army. A blow was aimed against the power of England by the Berlin decree of Napoleon, who, after he had won the battle of Jena, and humbled the king of Prussia to the dust, tried, but in vain, to shut the whole continent to her manufacturing and commercial enterprise⁴, Nov. 1806. The following year, the ministry took part with Russia against the Turks; and two expeditions were sent out, one against Constantinople, the other against Egypt, both of which began well and ended unfavourably. A more disgraceful failure took place, when a second attempt was made against Buenos Ayres under *Whitelock*, a good garrison officer, but an ignorant and unskilful general. He

² Now made lord Collingwood. The battle was fought, Oct. 21, 1805.

³ July, 1806. The kingdom of Naples had been overrun by the French, and Stuart had been sent from Sicily in the vain hope of raising a grand insurrection of the Calabrians against them.

⁴ The Milan decree, Dec. 1807, which was to carry out this policy, also proved a failure.

agreed to give up Montevideo, a recent conquest, and to evacuate South America.

The abolition of the slave trade, which had been urged for years with all the eloquence of *William Wilberforce*, had by this time been carried by the ministers, who next proposed to relieve the Roman Catholics from their disabilities. The king was inflexible upon this point, and they were forced to resign, March, 1807. Though men of first-rate ability⁵, they had displayed little administrative talent. The duke of *Portland* succeeded as prime minister.

The emperor *Alexander* of Russia entered, in July, into an alliance with Napoleon at Tilsit; and it was known for certain that Denmark would either join the league, or be forced into it. A vigorous, but somewhat questionable step, was taken at this crisis. A powerful armament, under admiral *Gambier* and lord *Cathcart*, invested Copenhagen by sea and land: and a victory gained by sir *Arthur Wellesley*, the first of his exploits in Europe⁶, followed up by the furious bombardment of the city, obliged the Danes to give up all their ships of war, and the whole of their naval stores, Sept, 1807. Heligoland, which commands the mouth of the Elbe, was also taken possession of.

A treaty having been made between France and Spain for the reduction of Portugal, the prince regent of that country was called upon by the English government to surrender his fleet, which otherwise would have been sure to fall into the possession of the invaders; or else to retire with it to the Brazils. The prince complied; and the day after his departure, the French, under the command of *Junot*, entered into Lisbon, Nov. 1807.

The next year, May, 1808, Napoleon decoyed his weak

⁵ The ministry was said to contain "*all the talents*."

⁶ In India he had already won the battle of Assye, Sept. 1803. He was brother of the marquis of Wellesley.

ally *Charles IV.* of Spain⁷ and his whole family to Bayonne; obliged them to resign all their rights into his hands; and kept them prisoners of war. The emperor's brother *Joseph* was placed on the throne of Spain, and upheld in his usurpation by the armies of France. The Spanish nation, however, rose against the yoke of a foreign master, an example followed by the Portuguese; and a desperate, but ill-managed war broke out, which quickly enlisted the sympathies of England in its favour.

The English, under sir Arthur Wellesley, landed in Portugal, and routed the French at Vimeiro, Aug. 1808. But on the arrival, after the victory, of sir *Hew Dalrymple*, the general-in-chief, the unpopular convention of Cintra was agreed to, and Junot and his rapacious army were transported to France with their arms, baggage, and much of their plunder. The command of the British troops was next given to sir *John Moore*, who advanced into Spain, but, seeing that it was impossible to cope with Napoleon, retreated towards the sea-port of Corunna, pursued by marshal *Soult*. The retreat, which was in the depth of winter, was most disorderly; yet Soult met with so decisive a repulse at Corunna, where sir John Moore was killed, that the army succeeded in effecting its embarkation, Jan. 1809.

In the course of the year, the battle of Wagram, in which the Austrians were beaten⁸, raised the power of Napoleon to its utmost height. Master of France, Belgium, Holland,

⁷ He had resigned the crown to his son *Ferdinand VII.*, and had been induced by the French to revoke the deed. Both parties were persuaded to go to Bayonne, and refer the cause to Napoleon's decision.

⁸ During the struggle, the English sent a powerful armament to the coast of Dutch Zealand, which took Flushing, July, 1809. But the earl of *Chatham*, the commander of the land forces, wanted energy, and the expedition returned home without making any per-

and the north of Italy, he had reduced Spain, Naples, Tuscany, Lucca, Switzerland, Westphalia, and the States on the Rhine, to a condition of abject dependence: Prussia was ruined, Austria subservient, and the emperor of Russia his confederate. England alone defied him. Though her expenditure was vast, and her national debt rapidly increased to a frightful amount⁹, her trade, manufactures, agriculture, and colonial dominion, by their wonderful growth, developed inexhaustible resources, which upheld her in the struggle. Her navies swept the enemy's fleets from the ocean; Cayenne, Martinique, Guadaloupe, Bourbon, Mauritius, Amboyna, Batavia, and the other Dutch settlements in the eastern seas, fell one after another into her power; and her old military glory, which seemed to have been banished to India, was at length displayed again in Europe¹.

After the failure of sir John Moore's expedition, Portugal was a second time invaded by the French. Sir Arthur Wellesley, however, returned from England, and forced them to retire beyond the frontier into Spain, whence he himself was in his turn obliged to retreat. While he remained in Portugal, an attempt was made to drive him into the sea; but he took up so strong a position within

manent conquest. Numbers of men were destroyed by fever on the unhealthy island of Walcheren.

⁹ The debt, which at the end of the American war amounted to about 250,000,000*l.*, amounted in 1815 to nearly 850,000,000*l.*

¹ The "orders of council" by which the Berlin and Milan decrees were retaliated, and the disputed right of search, caused a war with the United States of America, June, 1812. The Americans invaded Canada in vain, but were at first successful at sea, the English naval officers having held them too cheap. In 1814, Washington was taken and pillaged by the English, who failed afterwards at New Orleans, Jan. 1815. The war was now ended by the undefined peace of Ghent, neither party gaining any thing by the struggle.

the lines of Torres Vedras, Oct. 1810, that after some months the enemy was forced to retire in despair. The English general, now become lord *Wellington*, advanced into Spain, and after a series of battles and sieges, among which Salamanca, July, 1812, and Vittoria, June, 1813, were among the most important, he drove the French before him across their own frontier, and entered France in triumph. In the following spring, the tidings reached him at Thoulouse of the fall of Napoleon, A.D. 1814.

At home, the death of the duke of Portland towards the close of the year 1809, which had been preceded by a quarrel between Mr. *Canning* and lord *Castlereagh*, two of the ministers², caused the elevation of Mr. *Perceval*, a strong opponent of the Roman Catholic claims. About a twelvemonth afterwards, the king was again bereft of reason, the last illness of his much-loved daughter, the princess *Amelia*, having fearfully preyed upon a mind long excited by the cares and anxieties of troubled times. The regency was conferred by the parliament upon the prince of Wales, Feb. 1811; but with restricted powers for the first year. When that period was elapsed, to the great surprise of his old friends, he allowed the ministry to remain in office, and gave them his full confidence. And moreover, when Mr. *Perceval* was shot dead in the lobby of the house of commons, by a discontented wretch of the name of *Bellingham*, May, 1812, the prince having made an attempt, at the suggestion of parliament, to form another ministry, gladly retained their services, and desired the earl of *Liverpool* to take charge of the government.

² Canning had wished his colleague to be removed from the office of secretary of war, for which he was little qualified, as the expedition to Zealand had shown. Lord Castlereagh fancied that he had behaved in an underhand manner, called him out, and wounded him in the duel, Sept. 1809.

The fall of Napoleon was at hand. No longer the ally of Alexander, with a vast army of subjects and tributaries, he burst upon Russia, and fought his way to Moscow, its ancient capital, where he proposed to stay the winter, which threatened to be remarkably severe, Sept. 1812. So determined, however, was the spirit of resistance in the Russians, who were subsidized by England, that they set fire to the city; and the invaders were forced to make a disastrous retreat, in which, owing to the rigour of the season, and the fury of the pursuit, few indeed were ever able to reach the frontier in safety. At the news of his reverse, almost all Germany rose in arms against the oppressor; and, though he undauntedly raised another great army, he was met by the hosts of Russia, Austria, Prussia, and several other nations, at the terrible battle of Leipsic, routed, and driven back to France, Oct. 1813. Exhausted as his dominions were, he still made a noble stand against his foes when France was invaded by them at different points, and the English, under Wellington, were victorious in the south. At length, the allies entered Paris in triumph; and Napoleon, finding that all further resistance was hopeless, signed his abdication at Fontainebleau³, April, 1814, and the Bourbon king, *Lewis XVIII.*, was restored to the throne of his forefathers.

In the pacification of Paris which followed, the conquests of Napoleon were yielded up by France⁴. A congress of the plenipotentiaries of the leading states of Europe was also assembled at Vienna, to settle the disputed claims of the different nations, so as to adjust the balance of power.

³ He was allowed to retain the imperial title, and to reside in the island of Elba, of which he was to be sovereign.

⁴ England, however, restored to France the colonies which she had taken, except Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Mauritius. Java, Curaçao, St. Eustathius, and Surinam, were also given back to the Dutch.

The proceedings of the congress were interrupted for a time by the news that the restless Napoleon had landed with several hundred followers in the south of France, March, 1815, and, being favoured by the army, had, entered Paris, and driven the Bourbons before him out of the country. His triumph was short. At Waterloo, in the Netherlands, he and his army were routed by the English under the duke of Wellington, and the Prussians under prince *Blucher*, June 18th, 1815. France was again invaded; Paris once more surrendered; and he himself, after trying in vain to escape from his enemies, threw himself upon the mercy of England, and died in hopeless exile in the island of St. Helena, May, 1821⁵.

The chief remaining events of the long reign of George III., who died at Windsor, Jan. 1820, were the daring naval attack upon the strong pirate city of Algiers by lord *Exmouth*, which obliged the dey to abolish Christian slavery for ever, Aug. 1816; the death of princess *Charlotte*, the regent's only daughter⁶, after having given birth to a still-born child, Nov. 1817; the reform of the currency, of which gold was now made the standard⁷, A.D. 1819; and lastly, the outbreaks of popular discontent, and the distress which followed upon the sudden cessation of the vast expenditure of a long and exhausting war.

⁵ After he found that escape by sea was impossible, he surrendered to the captain of His Majesty's ship *Bellerophon*. Though allowed to go at large in St. Helena, he was closely guarded,—a precaution for which his conduct at Elba gave the fullest justification.

⁶ She was married to the present king of the Belgians, prince *Leopold of Saxe Cobourg*.

⁷ Originally the pound sterling, instead of being about one-third of a pound of silver, was a full pound; from the time, however, of Edward I., it had often been depreciated, especially by Henry VIII. Under Edward VI., it once became less than five shillings' worth of silver; but the year after it rose to about its present value.

George III. has been blamed, and not without some reason, on account of prejudices, which were partly the results of a neglected education. But the exemplary excellence of his private life, his sterling common sense, his high principle, and unshaken courage, in spite of the incessant attacks of calumny, commanded the love and esteem of his subjects in most trying times, and called forth their loyalty in defence of the monarchy and institutions of England⁸.

GEORGE IV.

- A. D. 1820. *George IV.* Thistlewood's Plot. Trial of the Queen.
 1827. Ministry of Canning. Battle of Navarino.
 1828. The Wellington Ministry. Test and Corporation Acts repealed.
 1829. *The Roman Catholic Relief Bill.*
 1830. Death of George IV.

Soon after the accession of GEORGE IV., one *Thistlewood*, and some other desperate malcontents, plotted to murder the ministers at a cabinet dinner. They were taken and executed, A.D. 1820.

A bill of pains and penalties was brought in to deprive the queen, *Caroline of Brunswick*, of her rights, and to divorce her for adultery. Her cause was warmly espoused by the opposition⁹, and also by the common people, who did not think that so unfaithful a husband as George IV. had been, could justly treat his wife with severity. After a judicial inquiry, the bill was read the second time in the

⁸ In this reign the colonization of Australia was begun, and the application of steam to manufacturing purposes and to navigation was discovered.

⁹ When George IV., while yet prince of Wales, first accused his wife, his father's Tory ministers took her part; now that he had given his favour to these, his wife had the sympathy of the Whigs.

house of lords ; but the majority was so small, and the excitement among the people so alarming, that the measure was dropped, Nov. 1820. The queen died not long afterwards, Aug. 1821.

The next year, the suicide of the marquis of Londonderry (lord Castlereagh), in a fit of insanity, opened the way for the return of Mr. Canning to office. The latter became also prime minister, Feb. 1827¹, when lord Liverpool was seized with apoplexy, which, though not immediately fatal, incapacitated him for business. As Mr. Canning was known to be favourable to the removal of all political disabilities from the Roman Catholics, the lord chancellor (*John Scott*, earl of *Eldon*, a great lawyer much trusted by the late king), the duke of Wellington, and Mr. *Peel* (afterwards sir *Robert Peel*), resigned their places in the cabinet, and thus obliged him to seek the support of the Whigs. The new minister took the part of the Greeks, who had revolted against the Turks, and secured their independence by making an alliance with the French and the Russians on their behalf. A fierce naval battle was fought at Navarino, in which the Turkish fleet was destroyed by the confederates, Oct. 1827.

But the career of this distinguished statesman was already ended. His health was too weak to struggle with anxiety, and in a few months he had been brought to his grave, Aug. 1827. After a short interval, during which lord *Goderich* carried on the government, Wellington and Peel came into office, Jan. 1828. The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, on the motion of lord *John Russell*, one of the leaders of the opposition, removed the last re-

¹ The duke of York, who been very popular as commander-in-chief of the army, had died the month before. As he was next heir to the throne, and much opposed to the claims of the Roman Catholics, his death at this crisis was deemed of no slight importance.

strictions from the Protestant dissenters²; and a greater change was nigh at hand. For the agitation among the Irish papists, who had found a leader in *Daniel O'Connell*, became every day more serious; and the ministers, dreading the outbreak of a civil war, suddenly changed their policy, and brought in a bill for the emancipation of the Roman Catholics, A. D. 1829. In spite of violent opposition, and the strong repugnance of the king himself, the measure was carried; and the Roman Catholics, though excluded from the chancellorship, were admitted to hold offices, and to have seats in parliament.

The king did not long survive. He died, June, 1830, and was succeeded by his brother *William*, duke of *Clarence*³.

WILLIAM IV.

A. D. 1830. *William IV. Second French Revolution.*

1831. Lord Grey's Ministry.

1832. *The Reform Bill passed.*

1833. India trade thrown open. Emancipation of the Negro Slaves.

1834. Quadruple Alliance. New Poor Law. Sir Robert Peel Minister.

1835. Lord Melbourne's Ministry. Municipal Reform.

1837. William IV. dies. *Queen Victoria.*

The increasing desire for a reform in the parliamentary representation and the abolition of the rotten boroughs, began to cause an excitement, which the recent example of a revolution in France rendered yet more dangerous⁴. The

² The exceptions in the Act of Toleration with regard to Socinians had already been repealed.

³ The duke of Clarence had entered into the navy in his youth, and had been on active service several years.

⁴ *Charles X.* was driven from his throne, and a distant cousin, *Louis Philippe*, duke of *Orleans*, was elected king of the French. *The latter has been deposed in his turn*, A. D. 1848.

duke of Wellington, who had strongly declared himself against any change, found it impossible to continue long in office, and was succeeded by earl *Grey* and a Whig administration. By these the Reform Bill was introduced, March, 1831. They were strongly opposed in the house of commons; on which the king suddenly prorogued, and then dissolved the parliament.

When the new parliament met, the bill was again brought forward. It was carried in the lower house, but thrown out by the peers⁵, Oct. 1831. A third attempt was made the next session; and at length the ministers resigned, finding that the king was unwilling to create a majority by making a batch of new peers. No administration, however, could be formed to succeed them: they were reinstated; the peers, thoroughly alarmed, gave way; and the bill was passed, June 4, 1832.

The Reform Bill was followed the year after by the opening of the East India trade⁶, and the emancipation of the negro slaves in the English colonies. The poor laws (a system which dates from the time of Elizabeth) were also revised, A. D. 1834⁷. Lord Grey now resigned, and was succeeded by lord *Melbourne*, another Whig statesman. In a few months, Nov. 1834, the ministers were dismissed, and the king called sir Robert Peel and the duke of Wellington into his councils and dissolved the parliament.

In the new house of commons, the *Conservatives*, as the anti-reformers were called, gained a decided increase of strength. But they were still a minority. A proposal for

⁵ Alarming riots now took place in Bristol and other places.

⁶ When a new charter was granted to the East India Company, it was deprived of its monopoly.

⁷ In April this year the Quadruple Alliance of England, France, Spain, and Portugal, was formed. It had for its object the support of the constitutional queens of Spain and Portugal, against rival pretenders to their thrones.

appropriating the "surplus" revenues of the Irish Church establishment to education was carried in the commons against the ministers⁸; and lord Melbourne and the Whigs returned to office, April, 1835.

The reform, this year, of the English corporations, London excepted, by the Municipal Act, was the last important constitutional change in this reign. William IV. died, June, 1837, and was succeeded by VICTORIA, the youthful daughter of his late brother the duke of *Kent*.

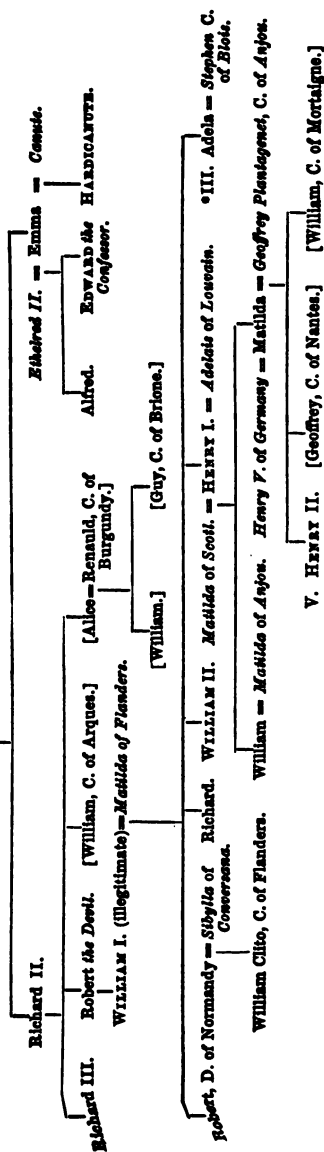
The growth of the trade, colonies, and manufacturing wealth of England; the diffusion of knowledge among the lower classes; the increase of intercourse among nations, owing to the great development of steam navigation and the recent invention of railroads; and the intense interest excited by great political and religious questions throughout the whole of the civilized world, render the period of Her present Majesty's accession one of the most momentous in history. Great events have since taken place, and there is much to hope and fear.

⁸ The appropriation clause was rejected by the peers, A. D. 1836.

Roll. D. of Normandy. A. D. 912.

William I.

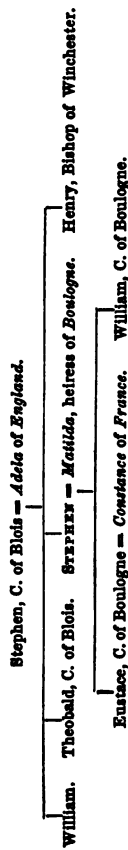
Richard J.



N.B. Henry I. had Robert, E. of Gloucester, and other illegitimate children.

* The Roman numerals here and elsewhere refer to the Tables thus marked.

III. Line of BLOIS.



IV. Daughters of HENRY II.

1. *Matilda* = *Henry the Lion*, D. of Saxony and Bavaria. 2. *Eleanor* = *Alphonso IV. of Castile*. *William II. of Sicily* = 3. *Jane* = *Raymond, C. of Thoulouse*.
- | | | |
|---|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Henry, C. Palatine = <i>Agnes of Seebia</i> . | Otho IV. of <i>Germany</i> . | William, D. of Brunswick. |
|---|------------------------------|---------------------------|

N.B. From *William, D. of Brunswick*, the present Royal Family of England are descended.

N.B. *Eleanor's* daughter *Blanche* married *Lewis VIII. of France*, on account of which connexion with the Plantagenets, the barons, when they rebelled against King John, offered him the crown of England.

V. *Line of PLANTAGENET from HENRY II. to RICHARD II.*

HENRY II. = Eleanor of Guienne, ex Q. of France.

**Henry — Margaret
of France.**

Constance of Bretagne.

Isabel, of Gloucester = JOHN = *Isabel of Angoulême.*

Arthur, D. of Brittany.

Eleanor

Richard, Joan = Alex.

[Will. B. of = El

Jeanour = Simon, Isabel = Fred.
 E. of II. of
 Leicester. Germany.

Princess of Castille = EDWARD I. = Margaret of France.

—
Edmund Crouchback
E. of Lancaster.

— Margaret = Alex. III.
of Scotland.

Henry D'Almain.

Edmund, E.
of Cornwall.

Alphonso. — EDWARD II. = Isabel of France.

Thomas, E.
of Norfolk.

Thomas, E. of Lancaster.

Henry, E. of Lancaster.

EDWARD III. = Philippa of Hainault. John, E. of Cornwall.

Jane = David II. Sir T. Holland = Jan of Scotland.

me the Fair® = Black Prince.

Henry, D. of Lancaster.

*Edward, P.=Jane of
Edw. of Wales. | Kent.
Hatfield.]*

VII. Lionel, D. of Clarence.

VIII. Edmund, D. of York. XIV. Thomas, D. of Gloucester.

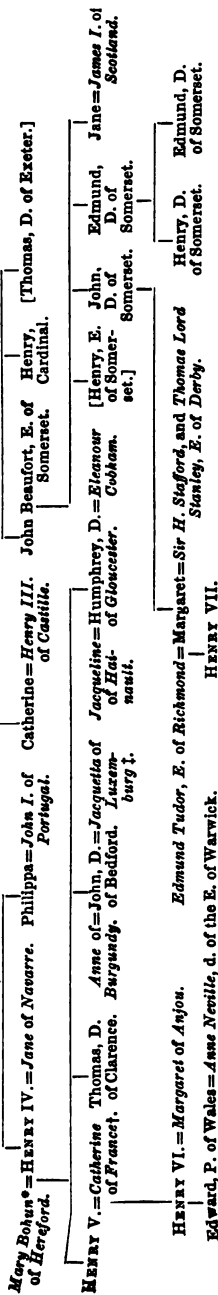
Blanche=John of Gaunt.

RICHARD II. = Isabel of France.

• [Her first marriage with *William, E. of Salisbury*, was dissolved. She was the mother of two *Hollands*, one of whom was earl of *Kent*, the other, earl of *Huntingdon* and duke of *Easter*.]

VI. Line of LANCASTER from JOHN of GAUNT (or GHENT).

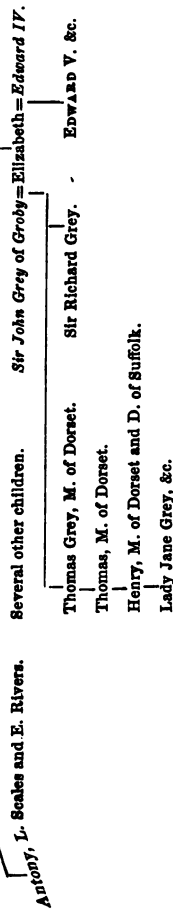
Blanche of Lancaster = John of Gaunt, D. of Lancaster. = *Constance of Castille* (illeg. and = Dame *Catherine Seynford* (d. of Sir *Payn Roet*), his mistress. d. of Peter the Cruel.)



* [One of her daughters, the lady *Philippa*, married *Eric VII. of Denmark*.]

† N.B. *Catherine*, Q. of Henry V., afterwards married *Owen Tudor*, and was mother of *Edmund, E. of Richmond*, and *Jasper, E. of Pembroke* and *D. of Bedford*.

‡ N.B. *Jacquetta*, D. of *Bedford* = *Richard Wydeville*, E. Rivers.



VII. Descendants of LIONEL of ANTWERP in the Female Line.

Elizabeth de Burgh, heiress of *Ulster* = *Lionel of Antwerp*, D. of *Clarence* = *Violante Visconti of Milan*.

Philip = *Edmund Mortimer*, E. of *March* (Great-Grandson of *Roger Mortimer*, the first Earl).

Roger, E. of *March*. Sir *Edmund Mortimer* = d. of *Glendower*. [John.] *Elizabeth* = *Henry Percy (Hotspur)*.

Edmund, E. of *March*. [Roger.] Anne = *Richard*, E. of *Cambridge*.

VIII. Line of YORK from EDMUND of LANGLEY.

Edmund of *Langley*, D. of *York*.

Edward (E. of *Rutland*, D. of *Albemarle*), D. of *York*.

Richard, E. of *Cambridge* = *Anne Mortimer*.

Richard, D. of *York* = *Cicely Neville*, d. of the E. of *Westmoreland*.

Edward IV. = *Elizabeth Wydeville*.

Edmund, E. of *Rutland*.

George, D. of *Clarence* = *Isabel Neville*.

Richard III. = *Anne Neville*.

Elizabeth = *John de la Pole*, D. of *Suffolk*. Margaret = *Charles*, D. of *Burgundy*.

Edward V. Richard, D. of *York*.

Elizabeth = *Hen. VII.* Catherine = *Sir W. Cowley*.

Edward, E. of *Warwick*. Margaret = *C. of Salisbury*.

Sir *Richard Pole*. Edward, P. of *Wales*.

John, E. of *Lincoln*. Edmund, E. of *Suffolk*. Richard.

Edward, M. of *Exeter*. Edward, E. of *Devon*.

Henry, L. *Montague*.

[Jeffrey.]

[Arthur.]

Reginald, Cardinal *Pole*.

HENRY VII. = Elizabeth of York.

ARTHUR, P. = Catherine of = HENRY VIII. = Anne Boleyn, and = Jane Seymour; Anne of Cleves; Margaret, Q. of Scotland. Mary, Q. of France.
of Wales. Arragon.

MARY = Philip II. ELIZABETH.
of Spain.

EDWARD VI. and Catherine Parr (widow of L. Latimer), who afterwards married Thomas Seymour, the High Admiral.
Catherine Howard;

James IV. of Scotland. — Margaret = Archibald Douglas, and = Henry Stuart, L. Metheln.
 E. of Angus.

James V. Margaret = Matthew Stuart, E. of Lennox.
 E. of Angus.

Mary, Q. = Henry, E. Darnley. Charles, E. of Lennox.
 of Scots.

JAMES I. — Arabella Stuart = Sir W. Seymour, afterwards D. of Somerset.

Lewis XII. of France = Mary = Charles Brandon, D. of Suffolk.
 E. of Lincoln.

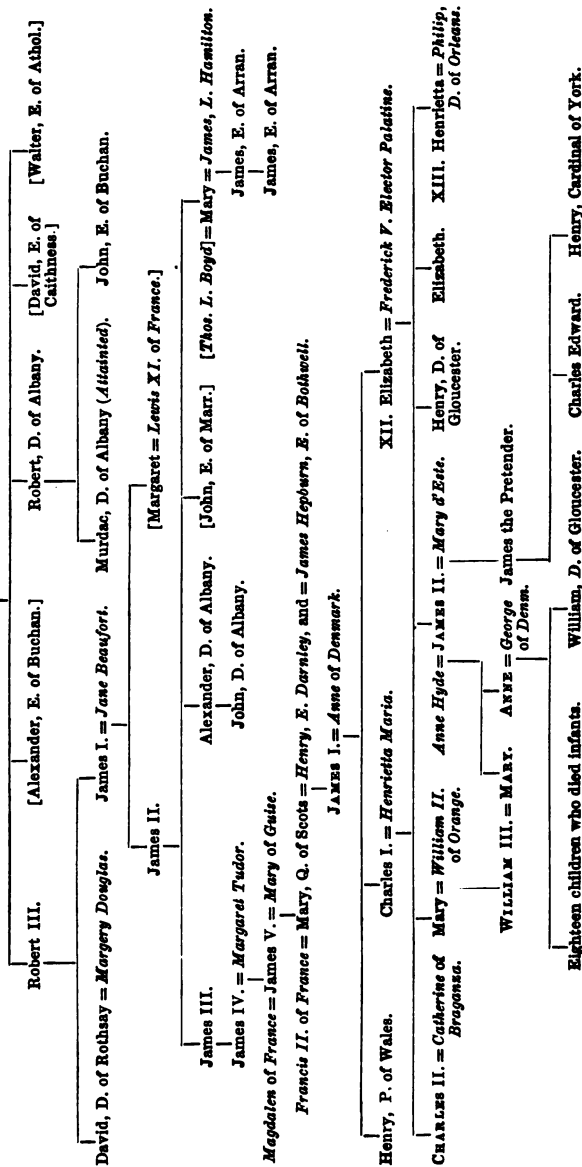
[Henry, E. Henry Grey = Frances Brandon = [Adrian Stokes.] [Eleanor = H. E. of Con-
 of Lincoln.] M. of Dorset. servient.]

Lady Jane Grey = L. Guildford * Will. L. = Catherine = Edw. Seymour. Mary = Marthe
 Dudley. Herbert. E. of Hertford. Keys.

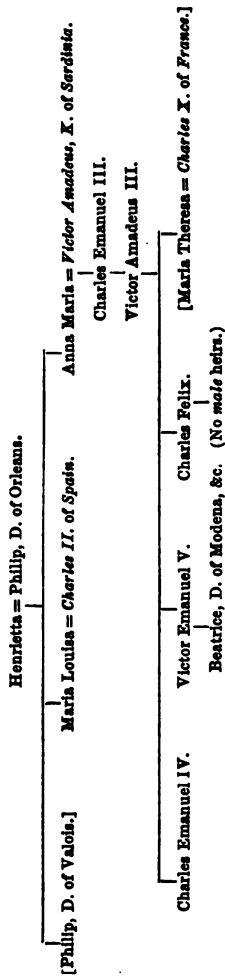
Edward, L. Beauchamp.
 Sir W. Seymour = Arabella Stuart.

• Son of the E. of Pembroke. This marriage was inquitously dissolved.

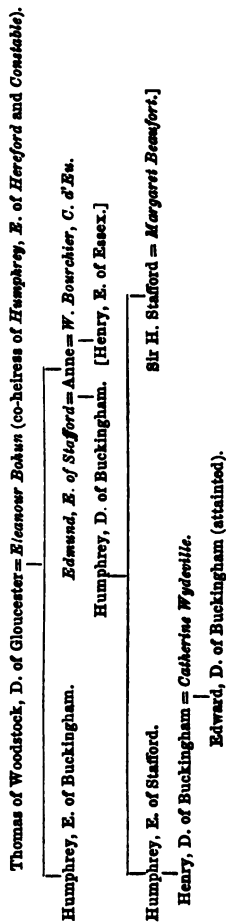
Robert II.



XIII. Descendants of HENRIETTA, Duchess of ORLEANS.



XIV. Descendants of THOMAS of WOODSTOCK, Duke of GLOUCESTER, to EDWARD, Duke of BUCKINGHAM.



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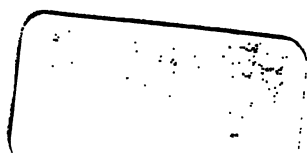
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